




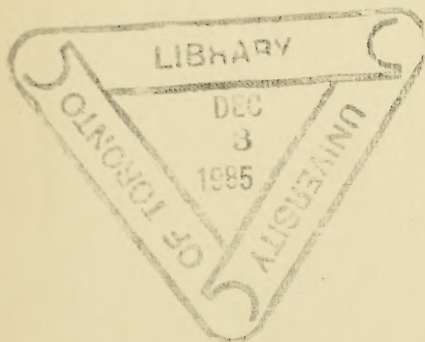
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# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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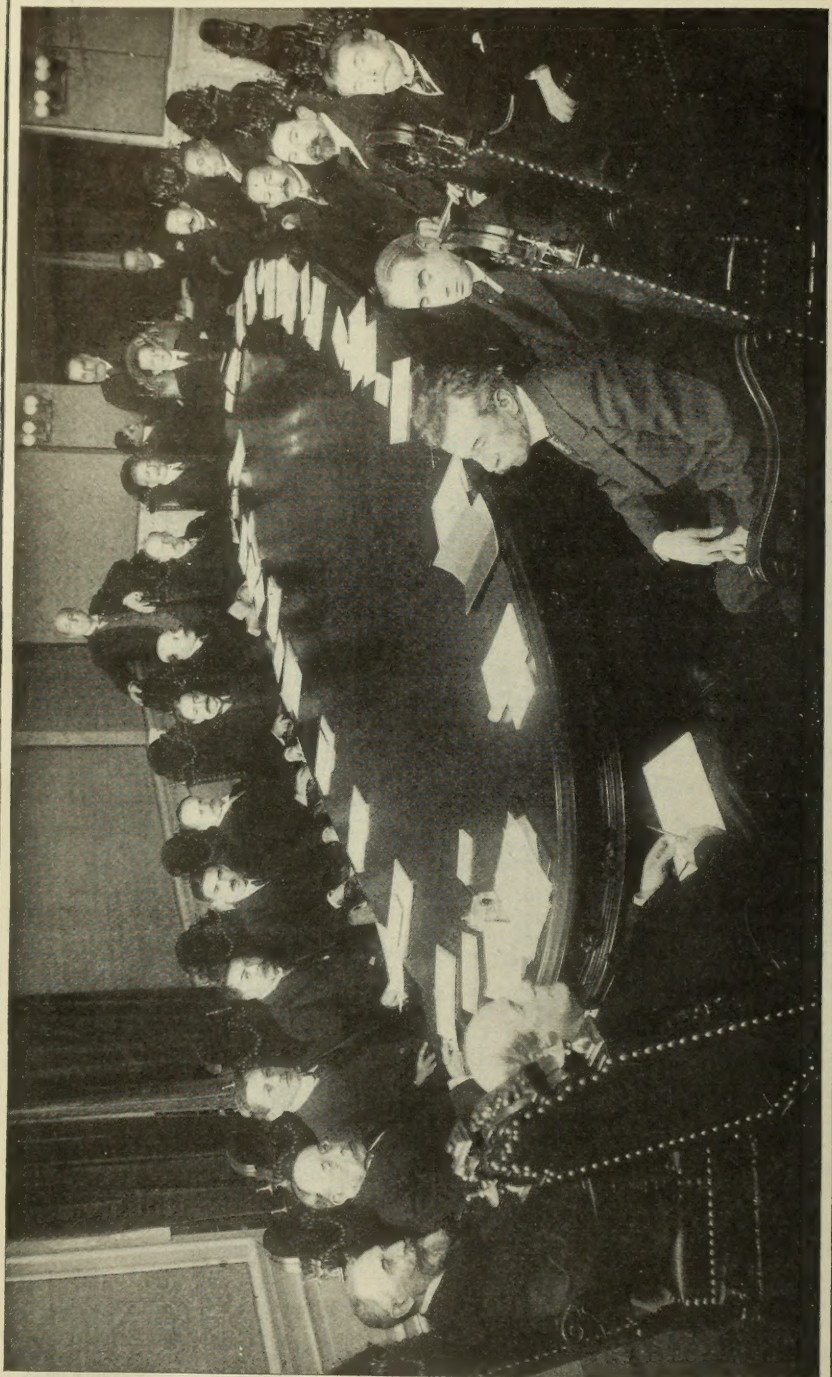
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### GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN-AMERICAN UNION DISCUSSING NEUTRALITY QUESTIONS

(This picture shows the Governing Board of the Pan-American Union assembled in the Pan-American Building, Washington, on December 8, to consider the attitude of the American republics on the question of neutrality. This was considered one of the most important international meetings ever held in Washington. The board consists of the diplomatic representatives of the Latin-American republics and the Secretary of State of the United States. From left to right around the table, are: Secretary Bryan, Ambassador Suarez Matija of Chile, Minister Calderon of Bolivia, Minister Mendez of Guatemala, Minister Membreño of Honduras, Minister Morales of Panama, Minister Cordova of Ecuador, Minister de Cespedes y Quesada of Cuba, Minister Domini of Venezuela, Director General Parrett (Island), Secretary Ancizar of Colombia, Minister Soler of the Dominican Republic, Assistant Director Yanes (Island), Secretary Moza of Salvador, Minister Mesen of Costa Rica, Minister Menos of Haiti, Minister Chamorro of Nicaragua, Minister Pezet of Peru, Minister de Pena of Uruguay, Ambassador Naon of Argentina, and Ambassador da Gama of Brazil)



# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LI

NEW YORK, JANUARY, 1915

No. 1

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*American  
Motives  
and Aims*

It has been our custom, in the opening pages of the January number of the REVIEW each year, to note the larger history-making tendencies of the time, and to call attention to the events of the passing year that seem most directly related to the forward movement of the world in civilization and human welfare. A year ago, when peace prevailed, our opening sentences were as follows:

Regarding mankind as a whole, the thing most to be deplored is war, and the thing most to be desired and definitely worked for is peace. Every step that can be taken by any government to lessen the likelihood of war, hasten its termination, or mitigate its horrors if it should actually exist, is plainly due as an obligation to its own people, and to the cause of civilization at large. It is too early to judge of the wisdom and efficiency in all details of the work of our State Department as directed by President Wilson and Secretary Bryan. But there can be no doubt concerning the high motives of our foreign policy, and its benevolent attitude towards other countries. Secretary Bryan has been negotiating a series of treaties designed to assure a period of investigation and inquiry into the nature of disputes before the outbreak of hostilities. Such agreements with several nations are already signed, and many others are in prospect. . . . The advantage of Mr. Bryan's plan is that it will diminish the danger of a sudden outbreak of war. The Secretary is doubtless right in believing that when disputes have been thoroughly studied and reported upon by an international commission they will have been brought into such relationship to the forces of public opinion that they can subsequently be settled either by the resuming of direct negotiation or else by reference to the Hague Tribunal or to some other form of arbitration.

*A Precipitate  
War*

Seven months after those sentences were written, the thing most dreaded in the world actually occurred. Without warning, without even the semblance of inquiry, or of discussion for the sake of the general peace, Europe plunged itself into a deadly war which has extended its baneful disturbances throughout all the continents. The war in its facts and bearings has so overshadowed all else, that we have been obliged ever since its outbreak to

devote the greater part of the space of this periodical either to the conflict itself or to conditions arising from it. To have given the war less attention would have been to lose all sense of proportion in the treatment of public affairs.

*A Happy  
American  
Contrast*

Meanwhile, it belongs to Americans to think deeply and resolutely into the problems of the near future. We are just now celebrating, with gratitude, a centenary of freedom from strife along the boundary line that separates us from the Dominion of Canada. While we have no governmental responsibility in the Maritime Provinces, in Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, Saskatchewan, or British Columbia, we have hearty interest and good will towards these neighbor states, and towards their democratic federal union. There have been substantial benefits on both sides of the line from everything on either side that has made for prosperity, progress, and freedom of intercourse. There have been no advantages, on either side of the line, from any acts or attitudes that have grown out of jealousy, distrust, ill-will, or a narrow policy of exclusiveness. We have the pleasure of printing in this number an eloquent tribute to the spirit of North America,—Canada and the United States together,—from the pen of Dr. J. A. Macdonald, of the *Toronto Globe*, than whom no one is better qualified to express in the largest way the feeling of our neighbors on the north. It is hard to see how any man or woman of just mind and clear vision can read his eulogium without saying to himself that although North America has indeed done tolerably well thus far, it must do even better in the future. For one thing, it should be and can be quite possible for the Canadian Dominion to participate more directly in Western Hemisphere affairs, without necessarily affecting any relations that she desires to maintain with Great Britain and other parts of the British Empire. Many things will necessitate such a tendency.



*Let Canada Sit  
at the Pan-  
American Board*

For example, note the interesting frontispiece of this number. It shows a very recent session of the Governing Board of the Pan-American Union, in its fine building at Washington. At the head of the table sits our Secretary of State, and around him, each in his own place, are the ambassadors of Brazil, Argentina, and Chile, and the ministers from the other American republics. Standing at the opposite end are Mr. John Barrett, the Director General, and Dr. Francisco J. Yanes, the Assistant Director. It is earnestly to be hoped that in the near future a Mexican ambassador representing a stable government will be found once more in his place at the council table. But certainly there ought to be a Canadian in this Governing Board of the Pan-American Union. While we have been congratulating ourselves upon the keeping of the peace between Canada and the United States, and rejoicing in our peaceful and unfortified international boundary line, we must not forget how Argentina and Chile have also adjusted boundary disputes by arbitration, and are pledged to perpetual peace and amity.

*South  
American  
Progress*

Amidst great difficulties, due to rapidly changing conditions and lack of a uniformly developed and trained citizenship, the South American countries are choosing the principles of good neighborhood; rejecting the dogmas of militarism; accepting the leadership of their scholars and eminent thinkers in the domain of international law and diplomacy. The Monroe Doctrine means nothing except that all the American republics must be unhindered in trying to realize those American ideals of self-government and peace that are so splendidly portrayed in Dr. Macdonald's article. Now that they have become strong and influential, it is just as much the business of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile to stand by the United States in the maintenance of Western Hemisphere freedom and independence, as it is for the government at Washington to uphold those principles.

*Canada as a  
Bond of  
Union*

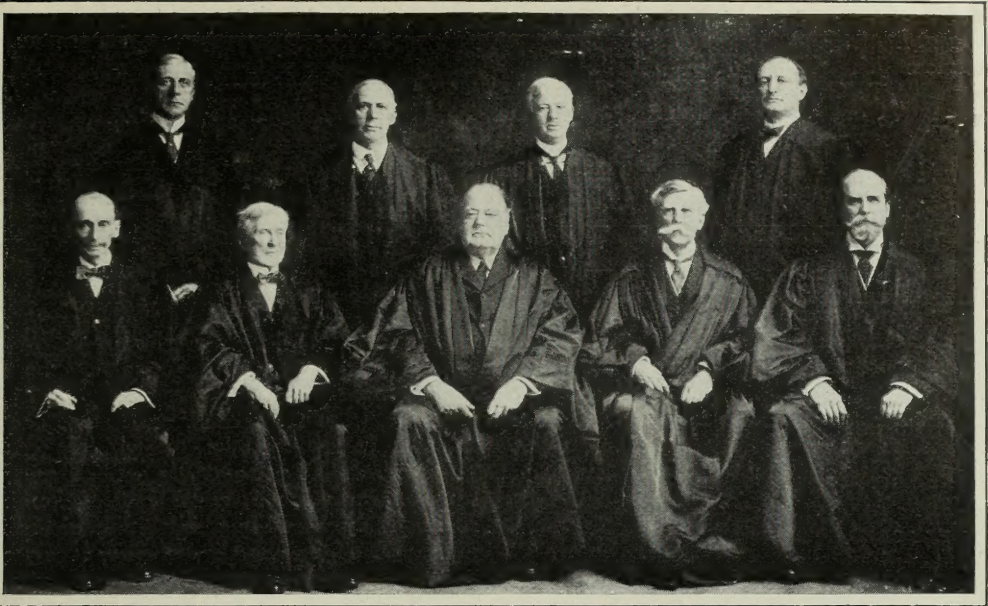
Canada is also in reality a great American republic, whose vital interests are not essentially different from those of the United States. Canada, according to Dr. Macdonald, has solved a great problem in that she has found a way to be fully self-governing without separation from the mother country. She has yet, however, to ask and answer the question whether there is not an even higher

duty and greater career before her. The peace of Europe and the world will be furthered by every step that improves the harmony of the Western Hemisphere on a non-military basis. World Federation will necessitate some subordinate groupings. The Pan-American Union may well grow in influence and in functions, until it has led the way to a far more perfect assurance of peace and stability in the Western Hemisphere than has yet been attained. Canada's destinies are here, in American latitudes and longitudes, and cannot be shifted. Her problems of the future, however, need not be considered in the light of any national rivalries or animosities. Canada is in a position to enjoy and benefit by the most perfect relations with Great Britain, the United States, and France. No other country in the world is so favorably placed. It may prove, also, that she may be the means of still further binding together in bonds of perpetual friendship these three great countries, with each one of which her past, present, and future are so inevitably associated.

*Unity  
Allows  
Variety*

Civilization has become an international fabric. National life and locality life have immense value, and their distinctive qualities should be encouraged rather than obliterated. But precisely as it is feasible to develop individuality in the several members of our union of forty-eight States, without in the smallest degree weakening the structure of the American nation as a whole, even so it can be made feasible for nations to harmonize and co-operate, laying aside the war spirit, without interfering with the aspirations of any land or people towards its highest and most distinctive development and expression. It is the present militaristic system of rival governments,—recognizing no superior authority,—that crushes races and peoples. A true world federation would liberate, never repress. The more free and democratic England becomes,—and the more completely British statesmen adopt the principles of home rule and broad tolerance, the more loyal and united are all the diverse elements in the empire. They find contentment in their sense of opportunity to achieve for themselves. They are not reduced to drab uniformity, but go forward spontaneously. Our Canadian friends have found a way to make their great French-speaking and English-speaking elements comfortable and happy,—in their separate interests as well as in their common affairs.





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THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES. A TRIBUNAL WHOSE DECISIONS ARE RESPECTED AS AUTHORITY, AND WHICH SUFFICE TO MEET ALL DIFFERENCES ARISING BETWEEN FORTY-EIGHT STATES AND THEIR RESPECTIVE CITIZENS

[Many important questions have lately been determined by the Supreme Court, and all the members of the federal union are constant gainers by its wise exercise of jurisdiction. It points the way to some authoritative tribunal of the nations for the settlement of questions that endanger peace. Sitting, from left to right, are Justices William R. Day, Joseph McKenna, Edward Douglass White (Chief Justice), Oliver Wendell Holmes, and Charles E. Hughes. Standing, are Justices Mahlon Pitney, Willis Van Devanter, Joseph Rucker Lamar, and James C. McReynolds]

*Interests Across the Border*

There are in North America a great number of voluntary organizations and societies that do not find the international boundary line obstructive. We in the United States in a hundred ways are constantly helped and benefited by individual leaders in all sorts of activities who are guiding the progress of the Canadian communities. In like manner, the Canadians constantly show their satisfaction in deriving help from their colleagues on the south side of the boundary line. What the natural forces of progress are bringing to pass for the benefit of us all must be helped henceforth, rather than hindered, by the agencies that we call government. While, then, this European war gives us occasion for gratitude in the great fact of our continental peace, it also admonishes us to be at the greater pains in future to allow nothing to disturb the relations of good neighborhood.

*A Higher Rule Must Be Set Up*

The people of the world can no longer live in the fear of war between nations. The world will have to create a higher authority as a substitute for war. Getting the thing done will be difficult in practise. Some nations

will be loath to give up their ambitious designs, their hope of self-won aggrandizement; while other nations will find it hard to give up their fears and their habits of distrust. But the thing must be done, and it must be revolutionary. There must be a real federation of the world. The individual man must be a citizen of the world, not less than a citizen of his own country, his own province, his own village. There must be a peace union, with authority and with power to enforce its just decrees.

*The Sea Must Be Neutral*

There must even be neutralization of the high seas everywhere. Nations should have no more right to fight one another on the common seas, and to discommode peaceful commerce, than private individuals to fight duels with shotguns in crowded public streets. The jurisdiction of the high seas should belong to the higher world-authority. Peaceful commerce should be protected against piracy and depredation by an international fleet. The idea existed in the last century, when the United States, Great Britain, and other powers joined in policing the seas to suppress and destroy the slave trade, in which hun-



dreds of ships and crews were piratically engaged. "Sea-power" should belong to no single nation. It is a proper function of the organized world of commerce. This year should see the end of terrorism afloat.

*Neutrals  
Coming  
Together*

Perhaps nothing bold and concrete will come just now from the discussions of the Pan-American Union regarding the rights and duties of neutrals in this period of war. But in less direct and immediate ways the inquiry set on foot at the meeting of December 8 (see our frontispiece) will probably have profound consequences for good. It is valuable because it represents solidarity. This war began in the rivalries of race and nation in the heart of Europe. It has been carried on without full respect for the solemn treaties, signed at The Hague, having to do with the relative rights and obligations of neutrals and belligerents. A number of embarrassing questions have arisen on account of attempts to use Western Hemisphere ports, or territories, in the supplying of warships or in the guidance of their movements by wireless telegraphy. The Peruvian Minister, Mr. Pezet, was led to propose that a neutral zone be drawn about the Western Hemisphere, from which belligerent operations should be excluded.

*Can the Zones  
of Peace Be  
Widened?*

The old-time three-mile limit was based upon the carrying distance of naval and coast-defense guns. Artillery range is now so much increased that the neutralized coastwise strips of water should obviously be widened. Manifestly, however, Minister Pezet's proposals could not well be put into effect in time of war without the consent of the belligerents. At the meeting December 8, Dr. Naon, the Argentine Ambassador, offered resolutions that were unanimously adopted. They held that the magnitude of the present European war has resulted in operations that redound to the injury of neutrals. They call for a better definition of neutral rights, with a view to the protection of commerce. To take the lead in this matter, a special committee was constituted, with the Secretary of State as chairman *ex officio*. As members of the committee, there were named the ambassadors of Brazil, Chile, and Argentina, and the ministers from Uruguay, Peru, Ecuador, Honduras, and Cuba. Certainly valuable results must come from the study of these questions of international law and right, by men of so much experience, who are also to be assisted by their governments and by consulting jurists.

*The Meek Must  
Assert  
Themselves*

So relentless in its grim necessities is the law of modern warfare, that the innocent bystander cannot rely upon his mere rights as a shield and a defense. Neutrals must do what they can to assert their common interest. And if wars must be, there should be limits fixed within which to confine the operations, provided some authority can be created that will enforce the restrictions. The world must now make its way rapidly towards the tentative solution of these immense problems. Until the peace can be kept by international arrangements, it must in so far as possible be kept by the strength of those who believe in peace and are determined to have it.

*Our  
Own  
Defenses*

No possible good could come to the world at the present time through a sudden decrease of the ability of the United States to protect our own peace and that of our neighbors. We have witnessed in the past month some rather puzzling attempts to array men in opposition to each other, on the subject of American armament and defensive preparation. We find one group of men organizing a society to protect us against the extreme danger of our being virtually without any means of defense whatsoever. We find another group of men organizing to protect the country against the evil designs of those against whom it is charged that they would turn America into an armed camp, striving to outdo German militarism and to supplant England in control of the seas. The truth is that there is hardly any difference at all in the practical programs of these two groups. They think almost exactly alike; but one group emphasizes one necessary matter, while the other group is concerned with a different aspect of the military question. Neither side has quite justified a controversial tone or spirit. Each has been in danger of misrepresenting the other. Obviously, it would be madness to take our naval vessels out into midocean and sink them, in order forsooth to show the world our readiness for perpetual peace. It would be as foolish to disband our army just now as it would be to abolish the police department of New York City.

*Strength  
for Good  
Purposes*

Fortunately, the average man has common sense. The continued tranquillity of the Western Hemisphere must owe a great deal to the American navy as an agency for policing and protecting our half of the world. All maritime nations, of both hemispheres, are realizing that it is



fortunate that Uncle Sam is the sole guarantor of the Panama Canal, that he has the will and the strength to protect its neutrality, and that it will not be made a scene of war. Cuba's tranquillity is due to the fact that the army and navy of the United States stand ready to protect the peace and order of the island against rapine and violence from within or from without. 'Certainly it is to be hoped that all intelligent Americans have been duly chastened by the lessons of the terrible war in Europe. It is to be hoped that we have cast out all the lurking devils of imperial covetousness or ambition.

*Our  
Philippine  
Policy*

If we are to stay in the Philippines, it is not for any reasons of "strategy," naval or otherwise, in any possible future war. It is merely because in those islands, as in Cuba and Porto Rico, we have been helpful through a transitional period, and have yet some important work to do. There is neither tyranny nor selfishness in our Philippine policy. We have been developing the islands with amazing rapidity in the direction of agricultural and educational progress, in commerce, in public health, and in political institutions. But all wise observers, practically without exception, are of opinion that we cannot now give up this mission. Let no one, however, imagine that we are staying there in the spirit of a nation seeking the extension of colonial empire. We have become about as free from that spirit in the Philippines as are the American educators in Turkey and China, whose altruistic work was so sympathetically set forth by Mr. Oscar Straus, Judge Lobingier, Dr. Herrick, and others, in our issue for December. Even Mr. Jones understands better than a year ago.

*Efficiency  
a  
Duty*

The American army and navy exist to help in keeping the world's peace until such time,—and it ought to come very soon,—as the world may organize so efficiently as to relieve individual nations of these regrettable burdens. It happens that for some years past we have been spending a round sum of, let us say, \$250,000,000 a year upon the maintenance of our army and navy. In following with reasonable care the discussion of national defense that centered in New York and Washington last month, we did not discover any responsible group or body of citizens who took the ground that we ought suddenly to cease spending that sum, or ought to reduce it materially. On the other hand, we were not able to discover any organized group who de-

manded or expected that we should very much increase our present annual military expenditure. Apparently there were some men who felt themselves justified in becoming greatly agitated over the technical conditions. They wished to thrash out in the corner groceries and the country schoolhouses, as well as in the halls of Congress, the question whether we had exactly enough torpedo tubes, and the extent to which our marine gunners had lost proficiency in marksmanship while the fleet lay off the coasts of Mexico.

*No  
Alarm  
Visible*

That these questions have their place is denied by nobody. But the country has declined to be alarmed. We should act responsibly in whatever we do. If we hold to the view,—as doubtless the entire country does hold,—that we must continue to have an army and navy, we should be slovenly fools not to have the best and most efficient army and navy that we could possibly procure,—through science, skill, expert training, continuity of policy, and economical management,—with the money available. There have been times when a pending issue in Congress merely resolved itself into a fight upon a point like this: Shall the present session authorize one superdreadnaught, more powerful than any existing, or two battleships less powerful though costing more in the aggregate than the one leviathan? And we have witnessed so-called advocates of international peace throwing themselves with almost insane emotion into the fight against the two battleships, and in favor of the one. Yet no principle at all was at stake. Congressmen were merely haggling at the naval appropriations, in order to make the so-called "pork-barrels" a little larger. They wanted to spend the money for post-office buildings and river improvements in their respective districts. They were spoiling a symmetrical policy of naval development,—just as an improvident farmer might cut down the insurance on his house and barns in order to use the premium money towards buying an automobile.

*Good Sense  
About  
Armament*

In short, there ought to be an end of namby-pamby talk about the army and navy. Surely, there is no more approved friend of international peace in our country than the Hon. Joseph H. Choate. Read, then, what he writes in this number of the REVIEW, on our need of efficient means of national defense. He is in perfect agreement with what President Wilson has set forth in his message



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

SECRETARY DANIELS BEFORE THE HOUSE NAVAL AFFAIRS COMMITTEE, ON DECEMBER 10

(This picture shows the House Committee on Naval Affairs in session with Secretary of the Navy, Josephus Daniels, on the stand. In his testimony the Secretary advocated his two-battleships-a-year program and declared that the sentiment of the American people is against turning the country into a great military power. Left to right around the table, are: Representatives Roberts of Massachusetts, Gerry of Rhode Island, Williams of Illinois, Tribble of Georgia, Estopinal of Louisiana, and Talbott of Maryland, Captain Winterhalter (aide to the Secretary of the Navy), Representative Butler of Pennsylvania, Secretary Daniels, Representatives Padgett of Tennessee [Chairman], Gray of Indiana, Hobson of Alabama, Witherspoon of Mississippi, Buchanan of Illinois, Stephens of California, Farr of Pennsylvania, Browning of New Jersey, Lee of Pennsylvania, and Kelley of Michigan.)

to Congress of December 8. In another part of this number of the REVIEW (see page 93) there will be found a summary of the current official utterances upon this important question of defense. There are included excerpts from the President's message, the reports of Secretaries Garrison and Daniels, and from the recommendations of the Chief of Staff of the Army and Admiral Dewey as head of the General Board of the Navy. The period in which we live is too serious to justify those who have a taste for controversy in trying to exaggerate seeming differences of opinion which lend themselves so easily to reconciliation. For our part, President Wilson's words seem statesmanlike and noble. They are wholly compatible with strict and efficient attention to the business of getting the best results out of the vast expenditures for army and navy that are met by the taxpayers.

The  
Current  
Reports

Secretary Garrison brings conspicuous good sense to bear, in his report, and no one can doubt the entire harmony between him and his chief, who is *ex officio* commander-in-chief of our armies and navies. Secretary Daniels does not argue down the views of the Naval Board, but, as a member of the cabinet, he has to deal with financial facts as he finds them; and the budget seems not to allow

as many new battleships as might otherwise be desirable. We are heartily in favor of the plan of very short army enlistments. There are thousands of young Americans who would be benefited by one year of discipline in the army, if the conditions were made wholly favorable to their mental and physical development, as well as to their strictly military training. It is also possible, along the lines of Swiss and Australian experience, to bring a vast number of boys into a relatively greater fitness to defend their country and to serve it as good citizens. Civic duty, rather than brute force, should be inculcated. There might well be such juvenile training as would fit boys in a preliminary way to be firemen, policemen, railroad men, and all-around good practical citizens, as well as to defend the country in time of need. Doubtless much interesting information will result from the inquiries set on foot by the military committees when the session of Congress opened last month. The army and navy appropriation bills will give suitable opportunity for investigation and debate.

Civil War,  
—Mexico

It must always be borne in mind that there are other kinds of warfare that are more deadly than those between rival nations. Germany organizes and fights with perfect unity, raising unheard-of sums of money, putting forth



heroic efforts. The same thing may be said of France, of England, and seemingly of Russia. But when these wars between nations are ended there will remain always some danger of internal strife, of civil warfare. They were armed for imminent conflict in Ireland, only a few months ago. There has been revolutionary struggling in San Domingo and Haiti, and only lately in Peru and Ecuador. But most devastating and chaotic of all has been the civil strife in Mexico. As we have often said, that country needs to go into an outside receivership, and be administered without politics, for its own welfare, during a term of years. It is unfit as yet to govern itself on the democratic plan; and the firm but enlightened autocrat who can gain and hold the mastery, as successor to Porfirio Diaz, has not yet been acknowledged.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

SECRETARY GARRISON CONGRATULATING GENERAL HUGH L. SCOTT, AT THE WAR DEPARTMENT, ON OCCASION OF THE GENERAL'S RECENT PROMOTION TO THE OFFICE OF CHIEF OF STAFF IN THE ARMY

*Villa As  
the Strong  
Man*

This rôle of strong man may even yet have to be played by Francisco Villa. He is illiterate, of the humblest origin, and of very unpromising record. But he has developed into a military genius, and he seems to have the luck to be fighting on the side of destiny, of the common people, and of the wise principle of keeping on good terms with Uncle Sam.

Carranza belongs to the instructed class, but seems to have an unerring faculty for doing the wrong thing. Through Villa's generalship, Carranza reached Mexico City after the flight of Huerta. The two leaders promptly fell out, Carranza failing to work in harmony with the national convention, while Villa first deferred to it, then dominated it. The national convention chose Gutierrez for tem-



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THE TOWN OF NACO, ARIZ., ON THE BOUNDARY LINE, AFFECTED BY MEXICAN WARFARE





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GEN. FELIPE ANGELES, WHO HAS BEEN VILLA'S MOST ACCOMPLISHED MILITARY ASSOCIATE, AND MAY BECOME PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

porary President. Carranza declined to step aside, and was forced to leave Mexico City; while Villa's forces installed Gutierrez in the desolated National Palace. On November 23, our troops that had been at Vera Cruz for about seven months went on board the transports, and Carranza's men took possession of the town. Carranza himself adopted Vera Cruz as his temporary capital. Both Villa and Carranza hail from the north, and their followers have been in bitter conflict in Sonora. The chief fighting last month was at Naco, on the boundary line, and stray bullets killed several people and wounded many others on the Arizona side of the line. Another instance was thus furnished, on a small scale, of the reckless disregard of the rights of the neutral bystander when military men array their forces against one another. Our authorities showed remarkable forbearance, although General Tasker H. Bliss had several regiments near at hand. Secretary Garrison, after the middle of December, sent General Hugh L. Scott, now Chief of Staff, to visit the scene of trouble and to endeavor, through his extensive personal acquaintance and great influence, to persuade the factions to withdraw further from the American line. The important thing, of course, is to get some central authority established in Mexico. Villa and Zapata seem to have come through the ordeal of struggle and elimination, and to have emerged as the successful "men on

horseback." They have different ideas as to a successor to Gutierrez in the office of Provisional President; but it is supposed that they may compromise upon Gen. Felipe Angeles. That Carranza's position at Vera Cruz will soon be rendered untenable is the common belief. It had been reported that he was all ready to follow the example of several predecessors, and take ship to enjoy the hospitality of some other country. The convention of Constitutionalist leaders was expected to assemble again on January 1.

*Some Army  
and Navy  
Problems*

Affairs on the Mexican boundary and in Mexican waters have better familiarized Americans with the names and qualities of a few of the modest, capable, and faithful men who rank high in the American army and navy. Under our system, we retire these men from active service when they reach a deadline age, which is considerably below the actual age of most of the eminent generals and admirals now controlling the operations of European armies and navies. For example, General Wotherspoon had been Chief of the Army Staff for only a few months, when the age limit put him on the retired list. Being at his very best, he has accepted the invitation of Governor Whitman to become head of the Department of Public Works in the State of New York. General Scott, the new Chief of Staff, and General Tasker H. Bliss will retire in 1917. Among others soon to leave the active service of the navy are Admirals Badger, Cowles, Moore, Willis, and Reynolds, all of whom go in the present year. Admirals Howard and Fiske



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GOOD-BYE, OR ONLY AU REVOIR?  
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



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GENERAL CARRANZA'S FORCES MARCHING INTO VERA CRUZ UPON THE WITHDRAWAL OF THE UNITED STATES TROOPS ON NOVEMBER 23

will be retired in 1916, and Admiral Fletcher in 1917. These men are all in prime condition, and the navy should have the benefit of their training and experience. They are national assets.

*Broaden  
the  
Services!*

Evidently if we do not retire generals and admirals, the younger men will never have a chance to reach the top. Yet we need our trained men; and we should not deprive ourselves of the wisdom and experience of some of our ablest officers in the very period when they have attained their highest power for public service. The solution will be found to lie in a different and a broader conception of the army and navy. These services will be even more efficient when they cease to be so narrowly professionalized. Hundreds of officers could be employed in educational work, and in helping to train young citizens for armed defense and for other kinds of civic duty. Hundreds could be used in the administration of railroads, large industries, public works of all kinds, while still retaining some relation to the army and navy. It is plain that we have not hit upon the right scheme in this country; and that some men of genius in organization are needed to help us better to coördinate and to simplify things that are now needlessly complicated and separate from each other. Mr. Harrington

Emerson has some suggestions (see page 48) in this number that are worth reading.



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BRIG.-GEN. TASKER H. BLISS

(Now in command of U. S. troops on Mexican border)





JUAN ISIDRO JIMINEZ, NEW PRESIDENT OF SANTO DOMINGO

(Elected and installed under the auspices of the United States Navy)

One of the most practical and beneficent uses to which the American navy has been put for some time is illustrated in the recent political history of Santo Domingo. Recent revolutionary struggles would have torn the island to pieces, sacrificed thousands of lives, and wrecked property interests, both domestic and foreign, but for the armed forces of the United States. Our marines had been withdrawn, early in the autumn; but on request of the State Department nearly a thousand of them, late in November, were sent from our naval base at Guantanamo (on the south coast of Cuba) to quell a fresh revolt growing out of the recent election. The election itself had been carried on under the actual supervision of an American commission, sent by President Wilson, at the head of which was ex-Governor Fort of New Jersey. It is reported that "United States marines with American civilians in Santo Domingo were stationed at every polling place in the republic, under the direction of Captain Eberle, commanding the cruiser *Washington*."

The result was a reasonably peaceful and fair election for the first time in the history of Santo Domingo, with the largest vote that had ever

been polled. Secretary Bryan, in his Santo Dominican policy, is acting in accordance with the opinions held by his Republican predecessors. The newly elected President, Juan Isidro Jimenez, took office on December 5, and an unusual condition of quiet was reported. The supervision of this country over the finances, the elections, and the conditions of peace and order in Santo Domingo constitutes a piece of police work, on the international scale, that should henceforth be performed regularly as a part of the proper business of our government.

Peace Again  
in  
Colorado

One of the most important recent services of the United States Army was practically concluded last month when; on the 8th, the strike in the Colorado coal mines was abruptly terminated, upon the order of the executive board of the United Mine Workers of America. It had been one of the worst strikes in our history. At first there had been a state of minor warfare between the striking miners and the hired guards and strike-breakers of the employing companies. Then there had been some deadly collisions between the State militia and the strikers, with results so threatening as to lead the President of the United States to respond to Governor Ammons' call for federal troops. Nearly 2000 United States regulars were stationed in the disturbed districts, and the mines had gradually resumed operation under protection against violence on the part of the union men who were still on strike. President Wilson, through investigators and mediators had en-



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INADEQUATE DEFENSE, ADEQUATE DEFENSE, OR MILITARISM

From the Tribune (Chicago)



THE COMMISSION APPOINTED BY PRESIDENT WILSON TO MEDIATE POINTS OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE COLORADO COAL COMPANIES AND THE MINERS

(Hon. Seth Low, the chairman, is in the center. At the left of the picture is Mr. Patrick Gilday, of Pennsylvania, a labor-union official. At the right is Mr. Charles W. Mills, the principal owner of a Pennsylvania coal company)

deavored to obtain from the owners and strikers an agreement upon a three-years truce, points of difference to be settled by reference to a commission to be named by the President. The strikers had agreed to these proposals, but the owners had objected to certain items in the program. The question figured largely in the State election, and had much to do with the Republican victory,—Governor Carlson being pledged to a firm enforcement of law. He is said to have received the votes of many Democrats who were opposed to the methods of the strike leaders. Fortunately, however, there seems no likelihood of a continued situation that might call for force or drastic measures. A few days prior to the calling-off of the strike (but with undoubted knowledge of what was going to happen), President Wilson named a commission of three to act as mediators in future points at issue between the Colorado coal operators and the miners. These commissioners are (1) the Hon. Seth Low, of New York, president of the National Civic Federation, and of great experience in questions of industrial dispute; (2) Mr. Charles W. Mills, of Pennsylvania, a coal operator of wide knowledge of the trade and its conditions; and (3) Mr. Patrick Gilday, one of the officers of the Mine Workers of America. These men would hardly have accepted the appointment if there had not been good reason for the hope that discussion and

conciliation would take the place of violence, that the owners would be less arbitrary on their part, and the miners less victimized by the bad counsels of anarchists and criminals in their organizations.

*Credit Due  
the  
Army*

Meanwhile the United States troops had brought safety to scenes where many lives had been sacrificed, and had shown tact and good judgment. The army has also of late supported law and order in temporary emergencies in Montana and Arkansas, besides saving the States of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona from what would undoubtedly have been serious conflict along the Mexican border. We have a very honorable, useful, and trustworthy little army; it is not much infected with the horrid doctrines of European militarism; we can afford to rely upon it for still further useful tasks. It has an excellent civilian head in Secretary Garrison, and in its generals, colonels, and subordinate officers it has a complement of upright and loyal men worthy of our best traditions and not opposed to the spirit of our highest aspirations for a future of world peace.

*The  
President's  
Message*

At about the middle of a Presidential term, political cleavages begin to assert themselves; the opposition party feels constrained to criticize the President and the party in power; if the





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## THE FEDERAL RESERVE BOARD—ACTUALLY DOING BUSINESS

(From left to right are Secretary of the Treasury McAdoo, Comptroller of the Currency Williams, Adolph C. Miller, Frederic A. Delano, H. Parker Willis [secretary], Charles S. Hamlin [Governor], W. P. G. Harding, and Paul M. Warburg)

Administration has opponents within its own party, they begin to grow restless and to put their heads together. The session of Congress that opened on December 7 is the concluding one of the body elected in 1912. The House recently elected will not be in session until next December, unless called together for extra duties by the President. According to his custom, Mr. Wilson appeared in person on the second day of the session, and delivered his message to Congress. It was an eloquent speech, and well received. Its allusions to national defense have been criticized, yet we are constrained to say, in all sincerity, that they seem to us to accord with the mature sentiment of the country. A quotation will be found on page 93. The message deals with several matters of pending legislation. The program for regulating business is declared to be "virtually complete," and we are told that business may go forward with confidence. But war conditions so affect international trade and commerce as to make it necessary that we should supply foreign markets as never before, and that trade should be carried on, particularly with South America, in merchant ships flying our flag. The President believes that this should come about by a bold public measure, and he defends the pending bill, which would make the Government itself the owner of a merchant fleet. It cannot be said that public opinion seems very heartily to support this proposal, although the need of ships is

clear and the opportunities for our maritime trade are exceptional. The President urges the completion of Mr. Lane's program of conservation measures, and supports the Philippine bill which enlarges the constitution of insular self-government; but nothing is said of Philippine independence. The question of rural credits is deferred until another session. The subject is thought to require still further study and debate.

*Business  
Is  
Supported*

The important thing, of course, is the passage of appropriation bills and the steady, by all means possible, of the agricultural, industrial, and financial situation. The new Federal Reserve Board has gained public confidence in short order, and the country seems better prepared to meet financial strain and shock than at any previous time in its history. The country awaits the naming of the members of the Federal Trade Commission, which is to help in the supervision of interstate commerce so far as industrial corporations are concerned. Next month we shall refer more particularly to agricultural problems as set forth in the excellent report of Secretary Houston, and to some of the interesting topics discussed by Postmaster-General Burleson, relating as they do to the daily affairs of many millions of our people. The war, rather than new legislation or government policies, is responsible for abnormal business conditions.

*Senate and President* It is to be regretted that differences arose last month between the President and the Senate, regarding so-called "patronage." Senators of the party in power expect to be consulted about the filling of certain federal offices in their respective States. Mr. Wilson had named several postmasters and some other officials without consulting Senator O'Gorman of New York, Senator Reed of Missouri, and perhaps one or two others. There is so much public business of great seriousness, requiring the best attention of every man in public life at this time, that disputes over patronage are not seemly. It is to be hoped that they may not consume any of the time or energy that should be devoted to larger things. It would be an immense relief if "politics" and "patronage" could be wholly eliminated from the country's post-office service, so that it might be put upon a basis of permanent efficiency. This remark is not made in criticism of any man in the Administration or in the Senate. Nobody has more clearly seen the need of a complete reform in this respect than the present Postmaster-General.

*Prohibition and Woman Suffrage* For more than a year Congress has been dodging a vote on national prohibition and woman suffrage, but last month the Rules Committee of the House, by unanimous vote, ordered special rules for the consideration of the Hobson prohibition resolution and the Bristow-Mondell resolution for woman suffrage, each of which proposes an amendment to the Constitution for which a two-thirds majority is required in the House. The defeat of both measures was confidently predicted last month, and it was noticeable that in the case of the prohibition amendment the "wets" were more eager than the "drys" to secure an early vote. Secretary Bryan has declared it as his opinion that the time is not ripe for the submission of such amendments, and that, even if a two-thirds vote of both House and Senate could be obtained, there is no reason to believe that the amendment would be ratified at this time by three-fourths of the States. Nevertheless, the very fact that propositions of this kind should get to a vote in Congress is highly significant.

*World-Wide Anti-Alcoholism* It is understood that President Wilson, like Secretary Bryan, holds that these matters are questions for State and not federal legisla-



Harris & Ewing, Washington, D. C.

DR. HENRY VAN DYKE, AMERICAN MINISTER TO HOLLAND

(As he appeared on his recent visit to Washington)

tion. But the extraordinary impetus that has been given to the prohibition movement in many of our States probably accounts in great part for the aggressive attitude of the friends of prohibition in the national Congress. A map published in our December number (page 663) showed thirteen States of the Union now under State-wide prohibition, five of them having been voted "dry" during the year 1914. Under our institutions and forms of government it is impossible to put in force such a measure as the prohibition of the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors in so summary a fashion as has just been demonstrated on a remarkable scale in Russia, a nation which practically controls the liquor monopoly through governmental agencies, and is relatively independent of public sentiment in the enforcement of its decrees. The astonishing success of the prohibition of vodka-selling in Russia since the mobilization order of last summer is set forth on page 96 of this REVIEW.



*Alaskan  
Railroads*

The annual report on the work of the Interior Department, by Secretary Lane, is one of the most readable "pub-docs" that has been issued in many a day. Among topics of special timely interest treated by the Secretary are the projected system of government railroads for Alaska, the coal-leasing bill for that territory, and the new reclamation law applying to the arid portions of our own West. It will be remembered that early last year Congress passed a bill authorizing preliminary surveys for the Alaska railroad system. Although this bill did not become a law by the President's signature until March 12, the engineers had been appointed and were on the ground with their outfits on the earliest day in summer on which it was possible to begin work. The summer was spent in the work and the commission of engineers will shortly submit to President Wilson its plans and surveys on which may be based the final decision as to the route and character of the railroad which the Government is to build.

*Opening the  
Coal Fields*

Four coast points have been considered as possible terminals: Cordova, Valdez, Portage Bay, and Seward. A short line capable of extension northerly already runs from Cordova. There is a government road from Valdez to Fairbanks and the Alaska Northern road has been built for seventy-two miles from Seward. With the information now available to the Government at Washington there seems no reason why the proposed railroad system, which will open to settlement an immense region heretofore undeveloped, should not be pushed rapidly to completion. Hardly less important for the future of Alaska than the railroad law was the passage of the law providing for the leasing of the great coal-fields. These will be at once surveyed by the Government and leased in forty-acre blocks, no single lease to exceed 2560 acres. The Government will receive from these coal lands a minimum royalty of two cents a ton and an annual rental of from twenty-five cents to one dollar per year per acre applicable on the royalty, this last provision making it onerous to hold land undeveloped. By unlocking these vast coal deposits the Government does its part towards making it possible for Alaska to pay for her own development. Secretary Daniels last month informed a Congressional Committee that tests just made show this Alaska coal to be superior for our naval vessels.

*The New  
Reclamation  
Law*

Our own Western States are particularly interested in the new reclamation law which went into effect last summer. This law extends the time for the payment made by the pioneer farmer on a reclamation project from ten to twenty years. By reducing the annual installments paid for water rights, the Government enables the settler to level his lands, secure farm implements and cattle, and gives him the opportunity to take from the land, in the words of Secretary Lane, "enough to pay for his water rights and live." There is also a provision in the law which is intended to compel the cultivation of private holdings and no longer permit their being held for speculation. Secretary Lane is especially desirous that the two bills, which were passed by the House, but failed of passage in the Senate,—the general leasing bill, so called, and the water power bill, should be enacted into law. The former of these measures would divide the revenue between the States whence the resources come and the Federal Government, while the power bill gives promise of safety to the investor, to whom it grants a fifty-years' lease of the Government site or other needed Government land. At the end of that period, however, the Government may take over the plant, paying for the right-of-way, water rights, and lands only their actual cost, and for all other property (excepting franchise or good will) its reasonable value.

*The Government  
and  
the Indian*

Secretary Lane gives special attention to the status of the Indian, the policy of our national government in its dealings with him, and the methods by which it is hoped to make him a really useful part of the nation. The "Indian problem" that the government had on its hands for many decades has virtually disappeared with the apportionment of land in severalty and the breaking up of tribal relationships. The old Cherokee Nation, with its Senate and House and full governmental machinery, went out of existence on the first day of last July. The Cherokees are now American citizens and the whole future Indian policy of our government should be shaped with a view to the future amalgamation of all tribal Indians into our body politic. This is clearly the view held by Secretary Lane and by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, the Hon. Cato Sells. The "wards-of-the-nation" theory, which for many years made every Indian reservation an orphan asylum, has become obsolete.

*The New  
Program—  
Education*

It is the purpose of this administration to make the Indian Bureau a wisely directed educational agency, to assist in every possible way to make the Indian capable of supporting himself, and to minimize, as far as possible, the almsgiving features that have always been associated with the government's attempts to "take care of" the Indian. Never before was so much done by the government by way of showing the Indian how to do his farming to the best advantage, and never before were so many or so excellent school facilities open to Indian children. The program that Secretary Lane advances he sums up in these words: "to organize each group of Indians into a community of sanely guided coöperators who shall be told and taught that this government is not to continue as an indulgent father, but as a helpful, experienced, and solicitous elder brother." Men may differ as to the methods by which this program is to be worked out, but as a general Indian policy it is hard to see how any succeeding administration can hope to improve on it.

*A Prison  
Reformer*

But Mr. Osborne has his own interpretation of the old line, "Stone walls do not a prison make." He believes that the real prison is the body of men confined within the walls, and for many years he has held certain principles on which he believes that our entire prison system should be reconstructed. One of these principles is that the end of prison confinement is not punishment, but temporary exile from society until the offender has shown by his conduct that he is fit to return. Another of Mr. Osborne's principles is that society, instead of branding a man as a criminal, should aim solely to reform the mental conditions under which a criminal act has been committed. Keeping in mind all the time the life of the convict after he returns to society, Mr. Osborne insists that within the prison every inmate must have as much individual freedom as practicable, since it is only by possessing some measure of freedom that a man can be fitted for liberty after he leaves the prison.

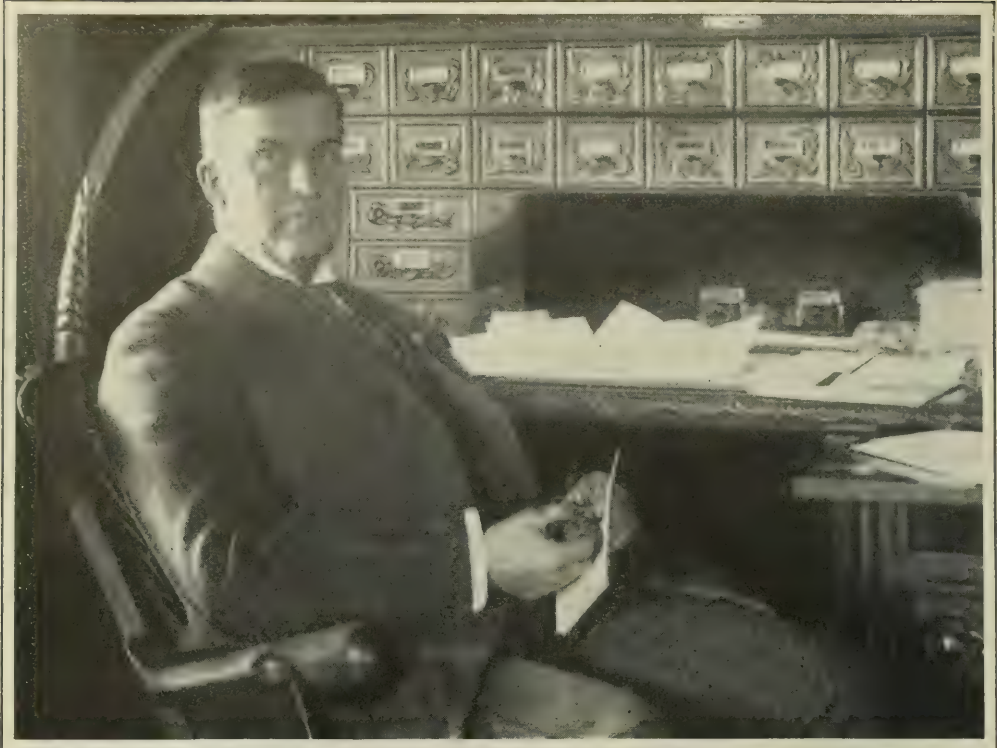
*Sing Sing's  
New Warden*

As the national government has to deal with 300,000 Indians, so each one of our State governments is concerned with the care of a great group of outlawed citizens,—those convicted of crimes against the State. Ordinarily the appointment of a warden of Sing Sing Prison in New York State would not be regarded as a matter of national consequence. But nothing that has recently occurred in the public affairs of the Empire State has occasioned more comment than the selection of Mr. Thomas Mott Osborne as warden of what is everywhere recognized as one of the most disgraceful State prisons in the country. It is because Sing Sing is known to be a failure as a penal institution and because Mr. Osborne is known to be one of the most advanced of prison reformers, that there was a general curiosity, last month, to see what would happen when he assumed his new duties. So far as externals go, Mr. Osborne would be the first to admit that Sing Sing Prison is indeed beyond hope of redemption. The buildings are old, insanitary, and unfit for human habitation. The damp and crowded cells breed tuberculosis, and released convicts going out from them to mingle with the outside world will be a menace to the community's health as long as they are permitted to exist. The old buildings must be torn down and Warden Osborne will ask the legislature for the means to build new.

*Convict  
Self-  
Government*

On assuming the wardenship, Mr. Osborne encouraged the prisoners at Sing Sing to request such changes in the prison management as they deemed practicable and consistent with the discipline of the institution. Through a committee they preferred fifteen such requests, thirteen of which the new warden granted immediately, while the others he held for further consideration. Most of these requests were for minor changes which would tend to make prison life pleasanter, but one went farther than these in asking that the executive committee of the Golden Rule Brotherhood, consisting of convicts, shall sit upon cases of minor infraction of rules and mete out penalties. This committee will be constituted as a court with a sergeant-at-arms to procure the attendance of convicts, and there will be the right of appeal to the warden's court. The Brotherhood court may warn and caution the convict or may suspend him from the privileges of the Brotherhood. Warden Osborne granted this request for self-government on the ground that the increased responsibility of the convicts would tend towards better conditions in the prison. He has himself been a diligent student of prison conditions, and, not content with what he had learned from the outside, he became a voluntary inmate of Auburn prison for one week, and during that time was subjected to the discipline of the institution. Scores of con-





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A PRISON WARDEN OF AN UNUSUAL TYPE, THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE, PHILANTHROPIST AND MAN OF AFFAIRS, NOW AT THE HEAD OF SING SING PRISON

victs have made him their confidant, and in his knowledge of the human aspects of convict life few prison wardens of the country have the advantage of Mr. Osborne. His appointment at Sing Sing was made by Governor Glynn with the assurance of Governor Whitman's approbation and support.

*The Largest Cotton Crop*

The final Government report on the cotton crop of the year puts the total at 16,596,000 bales, including "linters," the short staple cotton which adheres to the seed in ginning and which is afterwards removed by special machinery. This is the largest crop of cotton ever grown in the United States. It compares with 14,800,000 bales last year, 14,300,000 bales in 1912, and with the previous high record in 1911 of 16,250,000 bales. The comparative size of the crop is still better shown by citing the average yield of the five years to 1912, this average annual crop yield being 13,450,000 bales. Although this is, then, the greatest quantity of cotton ever raised in America, its value to the planters is much less this year than the value of the crop in 1913. Last year the crop was

worth, at the higher prices, \$887,000,000. This year, based on the average price of 6.8 cents per pound reported on December 1, the crop is worth \$519,000,000. This enormous falling off in the revenues of the Southern planters is, of course, due to the double influence of the great crop and the sudden contraction in demand from foreign countries, owing to the European War. The consumption of cotton outside of America is estimated to be 10,000,000 bales annually, of which no less than 7,000,000 bales is obtained from the United States. The official announcement of the size of the crop had no important influences on the price of the staple, which dropped but a few points below 7 cents.

*Relief for the Planters*

Plans for advancing money to the cotton planters on their holdings have been completed and a fund of \$100,000,000 is assured through subscriptions from the banks of the country. A cotton planter holding a certain number of bales, and desiring to hold them longer rather than sell at the present depressed prices, can go to his local bank and borrow

money on his bales, which the bank will value for that purpose at 6 cents per pound. The farmer can get in cash, however, only 5 cents a pound, thus leaving a margin of security to the bank of 20 per cent. The farmer may keep the money thus borrowed for one year and he pays 6 per cent. interest on it. The loan may be extended for six months further at the discretion of the commission in charge, which is composed of the members of the Federal Reserve Board.

Of the 5 cents paid out by the local bank as a loan on each pound of cotton,  $3\frac{3}{4}$  cents come from the banks of the North and West who have subscribed to the \$100,000,000 fund;  $1\frac{1}{4}$  cents, or 25 per cent. of the loan, are furnished by the local bank which deals directly with the farmer. It is not thought that the entire fund will be drawn on, but it is hoped that the loans may relieve many cases of necessity, and at the same time operate to diminish the effect of forced selling by needy planters in holding the price of the commodity to abnormally low figures. The increasing volume of export business in cotton seen in the last six weeks and the general determination of the Southern planters to curtail the cotton acreage next year should aid in gradually bringing this present

ruinous price of cotton closer to the average cost of production, estimated by the cotton growers to be about ten cents a pound.

*Reopening of the New York Stock Exchange* On December 12 the New York Stock Exchange reopened, after having been closed for 111 days, very much the longest period of suspension in the history of the institution. Many factors had, in the weeks preceding the reopening, operated to produce an atmosphere of renewed confidence and hope in financial circles. (1) The successful installation of the Federal Reserve Bank System; (2) the increase in export trade, following the partial clearing of the international exchange situation; (3) the widely spread rumor,—justified within a week,—that the Interstate Commerce Commission would grant the request of the Eastern railroads for a 5 per cent. increase in freight rates, and (4) an inevitable reaction from the general dismal mood of the previous four months, combined to bring many demonstrations of enthusiasm over the resumption of stock and bond trading. It is to be noted that under the rules of the reopening sales could not be made at prices below certain minimums, which followed closely the line of prices established on July 30, the day before the closing of the Exchange. In the first few

*Where the  
Money  
Comes From*



THIS WESTERN SCENE,—A FARMER CUTTING ENSILAGE CORN,—SUGGESTS THE ONE REMEDY FOR TOO MUCH COTTON





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#### REOPENING OF THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE

(An interior view of the Exchange when it opened again for business on December 12, after having been closed since July 30 on account of the European War)

days trading was also limited to certain issues. But, at any rate, there was little sign of the flood of selling from European security holders, the fear of which had hung like a nightmare over the spirits of Wall Street since the beginning of the war. After rapid advances in the prices of securities through the first three days of business, the market quieted and there was a decided reaction which, however, left average prices well above the quotations of July 30.

*Railroad Revenues Still Falling Off*

Statistics made available in December showed that the financial operative situation of the railroads all over the United States was very serious. Comparing October, 1914, with October of the previous year, which was itself a lean enough period for the railroads, there was a great falling off in gross revenues and a corresponding cut in expenses, which brought the net income of the two periods close together. It is well known, however, in well-informed quarters that these economies were enforced and were unfortunate, both from the standpoint of the roads and the standpoint of the public, tending toward a skimping of service and deterioration of plant. For November the principal roads in the United States and Canada, from which reports have been received, show a loss of gross revenues of no less than 20 per cent. from November of

1913. It is true that the roads of the United States did not do so badly as their Canadian neighbors, the Canadian Pacific Railroad alone reporting a decrease of 40 per cent. Yet our own losses are large and general. They are not confined to the Southern roads, where the low price of cotton and the loss of a large portion of the export business must have led to the presumption of poor railroad results. With the grain-carrying systems, even in this year of splendid wheat and corn crops, the earnings are almost as bad as with the Southern roads.

*The Railroads  
Get Their  
Rate Increase*

On December 18 the Interstate Commerce Commission announced its decision granting 5 per cent. increase in freight rates to the Eastern railroads. One hundred and twenty-five roads will benefit by the increased rates, the total added revenue being estimated at \$50,000,000. The higher rates may be put into effect by the roads on or after December 28. The Commission ruled that rates on coal, coke, iron ore, and those in "lake-and-rail" shipments, should be excepted from the increase and remain as they are. In the anxiously awaited report, from which Commissioners Harlan and Clements dissented, it was frankly admitted that the estimates of the carriers' income upon which the previous refusal had been based, were in error, as shown by the yearly reports of operations

published in the last three months, and by the current monthly earnings statements made since the close of the fiscal year on June 30. The decision finds that in the year ending June, 1914, the railroads lost no less than 17.7 per cent. of net income as compared with 1913, and that their income was less than in any other year since 1908. The Commission also recognizes the force of the arguments based on the higher cost of the capital that must be used by the roads in vast amounts to improve and extend their plants in step with the growth of the United States. It is also true, though not noted in the report, that the railroad revenues, shown to be less in 1914, than in any year since 1908, had in the later year to pay interest on a very much larger outlay of capital than had been invested in 1908.

*Will Five  
Per Cent.  
Be Enough?*

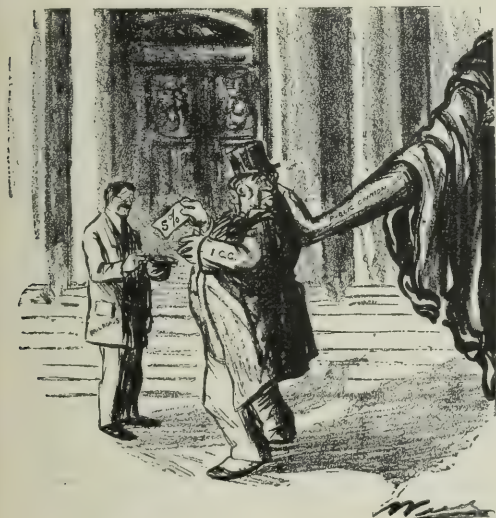
The rehearing of the rate-increase question which is now decided, was requested by the railroads on September 19, after several of the most prominent railroad presidents had called on President Wilson and made a very forcible exposition of their plight. The Interstate Commerce Commission gave thirty days to shippers and railroads to prepare their arguments, and the hearings were begun on October 19. Since September numerous roads have reduced or passed their dividends; in December two of the strongest systems in the country, financially,—the Atlantic Coast Line and the Louisville & Nashville,—reduced their annual dividend rates from 7 to 5 per cent.

*The Rate  
Question in  
Australia*

With such a situation confronting our great railroad industry, it is interesting to hear that the government-owned railroads of New South Wales have recently increased freight rates 10 per cent. and passenger rates from 5 to 50 per cent., and it is also instructive to learn that before these radical increases the rates of the Australian railroads were decidedly higher than our own tariffs. It has become increasingly clear that, if the American railroads are to give the service which the public ought to have, and are to obtain the money necessary to maintain their plants and make the requisite extensions, the shippers and traveling public will have to pay higher freight and passenger rates.

*Some Notes  
Regarding  
the War*

Our readers will find in this number another instalment of Mr. Simonds' comprehensive survey of the operations of the armies in the great war. This article has been carefully revised up to the 22nd of December, but it cannot of course reckon with the possibility of important changes in the closing days of the year. There was in no quarter any sign pointing to an early ending of the titanic struggle. The raid of German ships upon the Yorkshire coast only served to stimulate the energies of the whole British Empire. Our editorial views as respects the situation in many of its aspects are entirely in accord with those of Mr. Simonds. England's announcement of a protectorate over Egypt and the elimination of Turkey was merely an expected formality. Italy, with increasing accord, maintains the advantageous neutrality that has been fully analyzed and explained in this REVIEW from month to month. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, through their Kings and prime ministers, have conferred together and agreed upon close and harmonious action in defense of their common interests as neutrals. American relief has continued to flow to Belgium, where there is some sign of increased resumption of commerce and industry. In spite of the war, Germany seems to be carrying on her usual industrial activities with unexpected vigor. The winter conditions under which the war is being fought are most interestingly described in this number by Mr. Talman, of the Weather Bureau at Washington. The remarkable personality of the chief Russian military leaders, and their plans and achievements thus far, are described by Mr. Charles Johnston, who writes from personal acquaintance as well as thorough study.



"THE LORD LOVETH A CHEERFUL GIVER"  
From the Tribune (New York)



# LIFE IN THE TRENCHES WITH



BOMB-PROOF UNDERGROUND QUARTERS OF GERMAN OFFICERS AT A POINT IN THE ARDENNES FOREST



BRITISH TRENCHES THAT HAVE AROUSED THE ADMIRATION OF THE GERMANS: LATERAL INDIVIDUAL TRENCHES ARE DUG AT RIGHT ANGLES TO THE MAIN TRENCH, PROTECTING AGAINST FLANK-FIRE



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GERMAN TRENCHES BUILT WITH STOCKADE WALLS, WITH AMPLE ROOM INSIDE

# THE GERMANS AND THE ALLIES



FRENCH SOLDIERS TRYING TO KEEP WARM IN THEIR DUGOUT



THE NECESSARY TELEPHONE MUST BE INSTALLED  
EVEN IN THE TRENCHES



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A TRENCH WITH A BOARDED ROOF



HOT SHOWER-BATHS ON THE FIRING LINE—THE INGENUOUS SCHEME OF A FRENCH ENGINEER





Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

#### THE GERMAN CRUISER "SCHARNHORST", FLAGSHIP OF ADMIRAL VON SPEE

(The *Scharnhorst* was one of four German cruisers sunk in the South Atlantic on December 8, during an engagement with a powerful British fleet. The British ships, under Vice-Admiral Sir Frederick Sturdee, had been recently dispatched from England to supplement other British, French, Russian, and Japanese vessels in a determined effort to destroy the German fleet and avenge the sinking of two British warships on November 1)

## RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From November 23 to December 21, 1914)

### *The Last Week of November*

November 23.—The German submarine *U-18* is rammed and sunk off the north coast of Scotland by a patrolling British warship.

British warships bombard the Belgian port of Zeebrugge with their big guns and destroy a submarine base which the Germans were establishing there; it is believed that six submarines are demolished.

The British Admiralty announces that three British aviators flew 125 miles across German territory to Friedrichshafen, on November 21, and damaged the Zeppelin shops there; two returned safely, but the third was brought down and captured.

November 24.—The Portuguese Parliament unanimously decides that Portugal shall enter the war, as soon as expedient, in accordance with her alliance with England.

Russia officially reports that the German army invading Poland has begun a retreat.

November 25.—An official German newspaper statement indicates that 4,000,000 men are in the German armies.

An official British statement places the losses in the British Navy at 4327 killed and 3014 wounded, missing, and taken prisoners.

November 26.—The British battleship *Bulwark* is literally blown to pieces at the mouth of the Thames, with a loss of 800 officers and men; the cause of the explosion is unknown, but it is believed to have originated in the magazine.

It is officially announced at Rome that Turkey has assured Italy that she will not interfere with navigation through the Suez Canal.

November 27.—The British Chancellor of the Exchequer announces that the \$1,750,000,000 war loan has been oversubscribed.

The British House of Commons adjourns until February 2.

Reports of the great battle in Russian Poland indicate that the invading German army has been broken into three parts.

The Sultan of Turkey and twenty-eight Moslem priests issue a proclamation calling upon

the Moslem world (according to a Constantinople report) to join in a holy war against Great Britain, Russia, and France.

November 29.—A French report states that Germany has paid Luxemburg an indemnity of \$37,500 (being actual damage to crops and fields) for marching troops across her neutral territory at the beginning of the war.

November 30.—An official Russian statement claims that 50,000 Austro-Hungarian soldiers were captured during the first week of November.

### *The First Week of December*

December 1.—Attention is drawn to the fact that the rulers of five warring nations are on the battle lines; King George, King Albert, and President Poincaré are in northern France and Belgium, and Emperor William and Czar Nicholas are at the Russo-German front.

General De Wet, leader of the rebellion in South Africa against British rule, is captured by loyal troops, and the rebellion is virtually at an end.

December 2.—Austrian troops capture the Serbian city of Belgrade, which had been attacked almost without interruption since July 29.

At the opening of the second war session of the Reichstag a new war credit of \$1,250,000,000 is voted with but one member (Herr Liebknecht, the Socialist leader) in opposition.

An official German statement claims that 80,000 Russian soldiers were captured during engagements in Poland from November 11 to December 1.

It is reported at Petrograd that General Rennenkampf, the noted Russian cavalry leader, has been relieved of his command,—the late arrival of his forces at an agreed point being the cause, it is alleged, of the failure of the Russian armies to surround the German army invading Poland.

December 3.—The opening of the Italian Parliament is attended by demonstrations over allusions to Italy's aspirations in respect of the former Italian territory in Austria, and to the plight of Belgium; but the address of Premier Salandra implies continued neutrality for a time at least.



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## A GERMAN ZEPPELIN AIRSHIP FLYING OVER WARSAW

(Russian Poland continued to be the principal theater of war last month, and the German invading armies had succeeded, by December 21, in reaching a point within forty miles of Warsaw, the principal city and seat of government. The illustration shows graphically the part which aircraft play in modern war, in locating forts and bodies of troops. The two chief cities of the Polish people are Warsaw and Cracow—the first in Russia, and the second in Austria. While Germans have been trying to take Warsaw, the Russians have been trying to take Cracow, on the Vistula—for a good picture of which see page 53, in connection with Mr. Simonds' article on "The Course of the War in December")

December 4.—Indications at the extreme ends of the fighting line,—in Belgium and in Alsace-Lorraine,—point to a resumption of the offensive by the Allies; it is understood that they have been reinforced in Belgium by additional troops from England, and that the German strength has been diminished by the transfer of troops to the Russian battleground.

December 5.—French artillery fire forces the Germans to evacuate Vermelles, a French town near the Belgian frontier.

The Servian and Portuguese cabinets resign.

December 6.—One of the German armies invading Russian Poland, heavily reinforced, advances and compels the Russians to evacuate the important city of Lodz after a bombardment lasting several days.

King Nicholas of Montenegro states that a third of his army has fallen on the battlefield.

A Danish report states that the second line of the German landsturm (untrained men between the ages of 17 and 45, and trained men between 39 and 45) has been called to the colors.

*The Second Week of December*

December 8.—A powerful British squadron under Vice-Admiral Sir Frederick Sturdee, in the South Atlantic near the Falkland Islands, engages

and destroys the German fleet which had sunk three British warships on November 1; the *Scharnhorst*, *Gneisenau*, *Nurnberg*, and *Leipzig* are sunk with a loss of approximately 2000 lives; the *Dresden* escapes.

The Servian army inflicts a severe defeat upon the invading Austrians, reoccupying Valjevo and taking more than 10,000 prisoners.

December 11.—President Poincaré meets with his cabinet in council at Paris for the first time since the seat of government was moved to Bordeaux, on September 3.

December 13.—The British submarine *B-11*, passing under mine fields, enters the Dardanelles and torpedoes and sinks the Turkish battleship *Messudieh*.

*The Third Week of December*

December 14.—The vigorous offensive movement of the Servian army forces a general retirement of the Austrians, culminating in the evacuation of Belgrade.

December 16.—A fleet of six or more German cruisers appears off the east coast of England and bombards the cities of Scarborough, Hartlepool, and Whitby; more than a hundred persons are killed and many others injured; the German



warships soon withdraw, elude British pursuing ships, and return to home waters.

Russia officially declares that a new German army advancing upon Warsaw from the north has been defeated near Mława and driven back toward the frontier.

The Servian General Staff declares that not a single Austrian remains on Servian soil.

December 17.—An official German statement maintains that the Russian offensive in Silesia and Posen has failed, and that in Poland the Russians are being pursued everywhere.

Great Britain declares that henceforth Egypt will constitute a British protectorate, the suzerainty of Turkey being terminated.

Russia announces that the German cruiser *Friedrich Karl* was sunk during a recent engagement in the Baltic.

The allied troops occupy Westende, on the

Belgian coast, after a bombardment by warships had forced the Germans to retire.

December 18.—The British Government announces that it has deposed the Khedive of Egypt, Abbas Hilmi Pasha, and appointed in his place his uncle, Prince Hussein Kemal Pasha, with the title of Sultan.

Lowicz, half-way between Lodz and Warsaw, is occupied by the German army after several days' fighting.

The Italian Senate adjourns after a demonstration in favor of peace.

December 20.—The Germans evacuate Dixmude, which they occupied on November 10 after a series of attacks lasting many days.

Prince von Buelow, special German ambassador to Italy, is received by King Victor Emmanuel.

A combined Servian and Montenegrin army begins a second invasion of the Austrian province of Bosnia.

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From November 22 to December 21, 1914)

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

December 7.—The Sixty-third Congress assembles for the short session. . . . In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) introduces a resolution calling for an investigation of the preparedness of the United States for war.

December 8.—Both branches meet in the House chamber, where the President reads to them his annual message.

December 9.—In the Senate, the Administration's Ship Purchase bill is introduced by Mr. Stone (Dem., Mo.); the House Committee on Naval Affairs questions Rear-Admiral Fletcher, commanding the Atlantic Fleet, on naval preparedness.

December 10-11.—The House Naval Affairs Committee hears Secretary of the Navy Daniels on the policy and efficiency of the navy.

December 14.—In the House, the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial appropriation bill,—the first of the supply measures,—is reported.

December 16.—In the Senate, the Administration's Ship Purchase bill is reported favorably from the Committee on Commerce; the Immigration measure is considered. . . . In the House, the River and Harbor appropriation bill (\$34,000,000) is reported; the Committee on Naval Affairs, questioning Assistant Secretary of the Navy Roosevelt, is told that in his opinion it would require nearly 30,000 additional men to man the ships in case of war.

December 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) introduces a measure embodying Secretary Garrison's plan for increasing the army (see page 93).

December 18.—In the House, Mr. Moon (Dem., Tenn.), chairman of the Committee on Post Offices, charges that a railway lobby has been successfully at work to influence members of Congress to readjust rates for carrying mail; the Committee on Naval Affairs holds its final hearing upon matters relating to naval policy and expenditures; Representative Gardner (Rep., Mass.) is the principal witness.

### AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

November 23.—The Minimum Wage law adopted by the Minnesota legislature in 1913 is declared unconstitutional in the State court at St. Paul.

November 29.—President Wilson names a commission of three (Seth Low, of New York, and Charles W. Mills and Patrick Gilday, of Pennsylvania) to mediate between the Colorado coal operators and the striking miners; the operators had previously rejected the plan.

December 7.—The President announces that he is opposed to a special Congressional inquiry into the national defenses, proposed by Congressman Gardner, but favors an inquiry by the regular committees of Congress.

December 8.—Major-General Wotherspoon, recently retired from the post of Chief of Staff of the United States Army, accepts the position of Superintendent of Public Works in New York State, offered by Governor-elect Whitman.

December 11.—The Kentucky Workmen's Compensation law is declared unconstitutional by the State Court of Appeals.

December 16.—The Federal Commission on Industrial Relations announces that it will investigate the rights, powers, and functions,—as well as the attitude toward industrial questions,—of such philanthropic organizations as the Rockefeller, Carnegie, and Sage Foundations.

December 18.—The Interstate Commerce Commission, in a divided decision, grants the application of the Eastern railroads for a 5 per cent. increase in all-rail freight rates, excepting on coal, coke, and iron ore.

### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

November 24.—The Carranza forces under General Blanco withdraw from Mexico City, and the followers of Zapata enter and control the city. . . . Provisional President Carranza arrives at Vera Cruz with his government officials and employees, intending to establish there his capital and headquarters.

December 3.—General Villa (it is reported) reaches an understanding with General Zapata and enters Mexico City at the head of his troops, accompanied by Provisional President Gutierrez.

December 5.—Juan Isidro Jimenez, chosen President of Santo Domingo in a recent election, takes the oath of office.

December 8.—The National Assembly of Panama ratifies the treaty granting to the United States control of the harbors of Colon and Ancon.

December 13.—A new cabinet is formed in Portugal, under Victor Coutinho, President of the Chamber of Deputies.

December 14.—The new ministry in Portugal fails to obtain a vote of confidence in the Senate, on the ground that it is not sufficiently national for the crisis.

December 18.—G. Motta (Minister of Finance) is elected President of the Swiss Confederation.

### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

November 23.—The United States troops are withdrawn from Vera Cruz, Mexico, after occupying the city and administering its affairs since April 21; the battleships *Minnesota* and *Texas* remain in the harbor. . . . The United States replies to a query from Germany,—as to the attitude of the United States regarding treatment of contraband by Great Britain and France,—that it does not consider the Declaration of London as binding, some of the belligerent powers having refused to ratify it.

November 26.—The State Department at Washington announces that the Turkish Minister of War has explained satisfactorily the Smyrna incident of November 16; the shot was fired, it is maintained, merely to warn the *Tennessee's* launch away from a mine-field.

December 8.—Secretary of State Bryan and the Diplomatic representatives at Washington of twenty American republics (composing the Governing Board of the Pan-American Union) meet and discuss problems relating to neutral nations as they are affected by the great war; a commission is appointed to investigate and make recommendations.

December 13.—Italy demands immediate reparation from Turkey for the invasion of the Italian consulate at Hodeida, on November 11, and the seizure of the British consul-general, who had sought refuge there.

December 15.—Conditions of warfare in Mexico, across the border, become so menacing to Americans in Naco, Ariz., that the United States cavalry gathered there is materially increased with forces of artillery and infantry, for the second time within seven days.

December 18.—King Haakon of Norway and King Christian of Denmark meet with King Gustave at Malmo, Sweden, to discuss problems of the war affecting the Scandinavian countries.

### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

November 23.—The Chicago Stock Exchange opens, trading being restricted to prices not below the closing figures of July 30. . . . Henry Siegel, proprietor of department stores in New York, Chicago, and Boston, is convicted upon a minor charge growing out of the manipulation of the credit of his stores and the funds of the stores' private banks, and is sentenced to pay \$1000 fine and possibly to spend ten months in prison.



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HON. MYRON T. HERRICK, WITH MRS. HERRICK, ON THEIR RETURN FROM FRANCE LAST MONTH

(Mr. Herrick had for the past three years rendered distinguished service as American Ambassador at Paris. His handling of new and delicate responsibilities occasioned by the war won high praise)

November 24.—The steam schooner *Hanalei* breaks in pieces upon Duxbury Reef, near San Francisco; twenty lives are lost.

November 25.—It becomes known that successful tests, under supervision of United States Army officials, have been made of a radio-controlled boat invented by John Hays Hammond, Jr.; the device is applicable to the guiding of a highly charged torpedo.

November 30.—Arbitration is begun at Chicago, by a board appointed under the Newlands Act, of wage-increase demands made by 55,000 locomotive engineers upon ninety-eight Western railroads.

December 7.—The Paris Bourse opens after a suspension of more than three months.

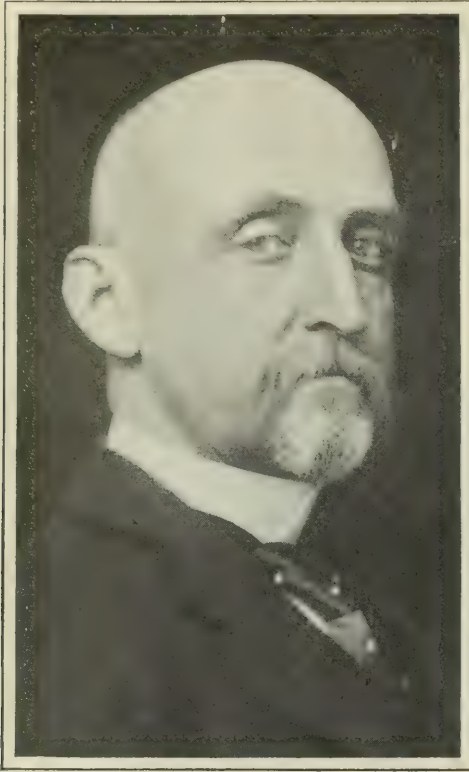
December 8.—The executive board of the United Mine Workers recommends that the strike in the Colorado coal-fields be called off; the strike lasted fourteen months, cost many million dollars, and resulted in the death of sixty-six persons.

December 9.—Fire almost completely destroys the laboratories and factories of Thomas A. Edison, at West Orange, N. J.

December 10.—The Government's report on the cotton crop indicates an unprecedented production of 15,966,000 bales.

December 12.—The New York Stock Exchange begins trading in stocks, with fixed minimum prices; the session closed with an average advance over the closing prices of July 30.





REAR-ADMIRAL ALFRED T. MAHAN

(For many years before his death, last month, Admiral Mahan had been considered one of the world's foremost authorities upon naval matters. His writings upon the influence of sea power are said to have materially affected naval policy not only in the United States but in several European countries. He was graduated from the Naval Academy just before the outbreak of the Civil War, and after thirty-seven years of active service applied for retirement in 1896, in order that he might devote his entire time to study and writing)

December 14.—Dr. John Henry MacCracken (professor of politics at New York University) is chosen president of Lafayette College.

December 15.—Dr. Henry N. MacCracken (professor of English at Smith College) is chosen president of Vassar.

#### OBITUARY

November 21.—Vinnie Ream Hoxie, sculptor, 67.

November 24.—Cardinal Aristide Cavallari, Patriarch of Venice, 64.

November 25.—Col. Robert B. Beath, Past Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 75. . . . Dr. Clinton Wagner, a noted throat specialist of New York City, 75.

November 26.—Dr. James Truman, former dean of the dental department of the University of Pennsylvania, 88.

November 27.—Rear-Admiral Wells L. Field, U.S.N., retired, 68. . . . Col. George Walter Dunn, for many years prominent in Republican politics in New York State, 74.

November 28.—Marquis Visconti-Venosta, the noted Italian statesman and diplomat, 85.

November 29.—Charles J. Canda, for many years treasurer of the Democratic National Committee, 76.

November 30.—Lucius Tuttle, former president of the Boston & Maine Railroad, 68.

December 1.—Rear-Admiral Alfred Thayer Mahan, U.S.N., retired, the famous writer on naval affairs, 74. . . . J. Borden Harriman, a prominent New York banker, 50.

December 2.—Henry William Banks Davis, the English painter, 81.

December 3.—Dr. Alexander Campbell Fraser, professor emeritus of logic and metaphysics at Edinburgh University, 95. . . . Sir John Henry Crichton (Earl of Erne), Grand Master of Orangemen in Ireland, 75.

December 4.—Edwin A. Merritt, Jr., Representative in Congress and former Speaker of the New York Assembly, 54. . . . J. Foster Wilkin, Justice of the Ohio Supreme Court, 61.

December 5.—Cardinal Angelo di Pietro, doyen of the Sacred College, 86. . . . Agnes Irwin, first dean of Radcliffe College, 73. . . . Frank Rice, former Secretary of State in New York, and a prominent attorney, 70.

December 6.—Daniel Bendann, a famous old-time Baltimore photographer, 79.

December 7.—Madison Julius Cawein, poet, 49.

December 8.—William W. Rockhill, the distinguished American diplomat, 60. . . . Charles A. Moore, a prominent New York manufacturer of railway and machinists' tools, 68.

December 10.—Serenio Elisha Payne, oldest member of the House of Representatives in point of service, and author of the tariff law of 1909, 71. . . . Joseph Smith, President of the Reorganized Church of Latter Day Saints, 82.

December 11.—Rear-Admiral Eugene Winslow Watson, U.S.N., retired, 71. . . . Richard A. Canfield, the gambler, 59.

December 13.—Major-Gen. Sir Edward Yewd Brabant, the British cavalry leader who won distinction in the Boer War, 75. . . . Dr. Charles Perier, president of the French Academy of Medicine, 78.

December 14.—Giovanni Sgambati, the Italian pianist and composer, 71. . . . Gen. José de J. Monteagudo, commander-in-chief of the Cuban army. . . . Katherine M. Cohen, a well-known sculptor, 55. . . . Rev. Christopher A. MacEvoy, former president of Villanova College, 74.

December 15.—Bart Johannes Blommers, president of the Dutch Academy of Painters, 69. . . . Col. Edward Daniel Meier, a noted mechanical engineer of New York. . . . Major-Gen. George Breckinridge Davis, U.S.A., retired, 67.

December 16.—Dr. Winfield S. Smith, professor of surgery at the Boston Medical School, 53.

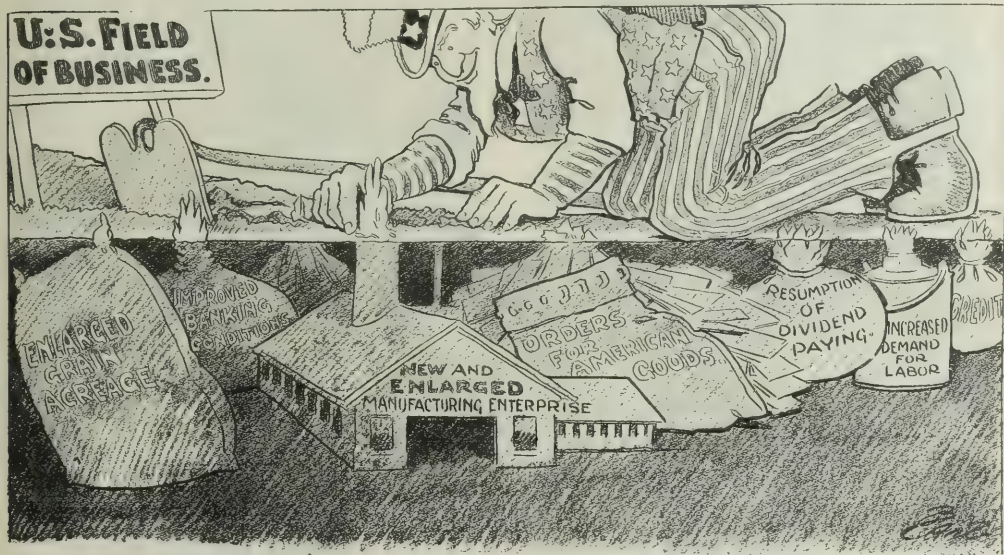
December 17.—Brig-Gen. John Vincent Furey, U.S.A., retired, 75.

December 18.—Archibald R. Colquhoun, the British traveler and author, 66.

December 19.—Rev. Richard Heber Newton, a distinguished New York clergyman, 74. . . . Lee McClung, recently Treasurer of the United States, 44.

December 20.—Eugene Zimmerman, the Cincinnati railroad financier, 68. . . . Brig-Gen. Charles Morton, U.S.A., retired, 68.

# SOME CARTOONS ON BUSINESS AND CONGRESSIONAL AFFAIRS



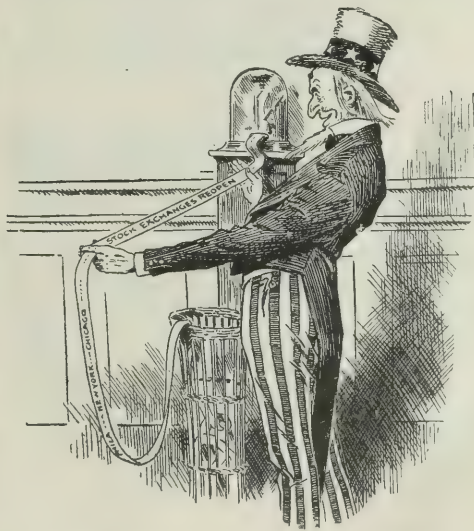
THE HOPEFUL "UNDERTONE"  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

**A**FTER a long siege of business depression, there are not lacking signs of improvement. As the financiers put it, there is a decidedly hopeful "undertone." Also,

the New York Stock Exchange has reopened for business, after its months of discontinuance, and the Interstate Commerce Commission has granted a long-desired increase of rates to the railroads.



DISSIPATING THE CHILL  
From the *Evening News* (Newark)



HOORAY, THE STOCK EXCHANGE REOPENS!  
From the *Record* (Philadelphia)

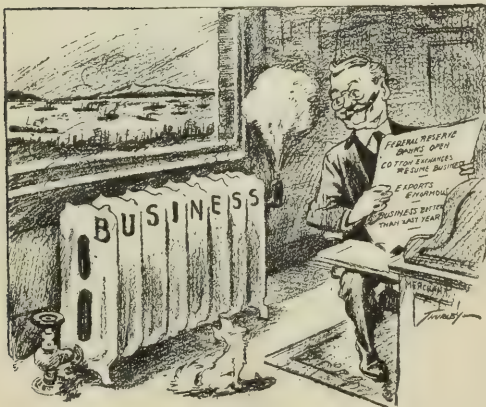




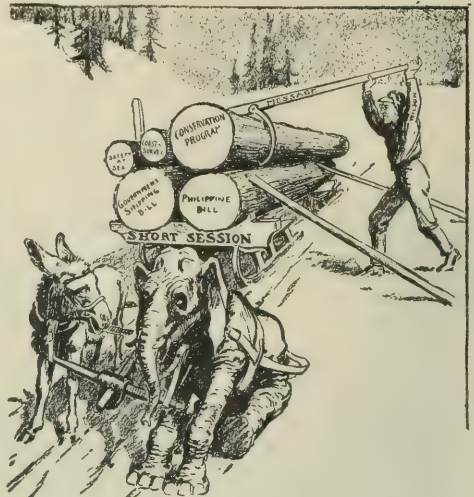
THIN ICE—A REDUCED DEMOCRATIC MAJORITY  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



WAR TAXES,—A BITTER PILL  
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)



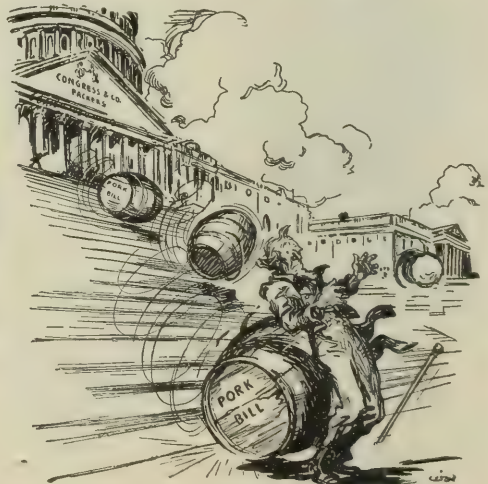
THAT CHEERFUL SOUND  
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



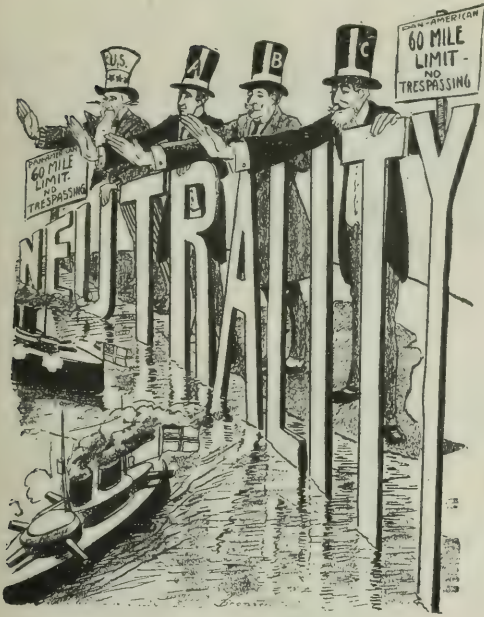
PULL, REPUBLICAN PARTY, PULL  
From the *Evening News* (Newark)



JUST HOW YOUR UNCLE SAMUEL FEELS ABOUT IT  
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)



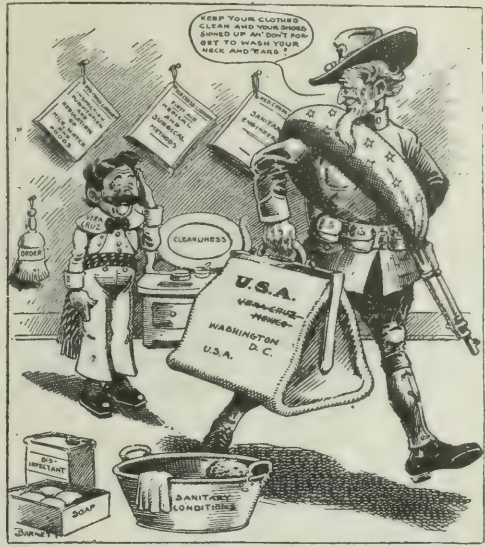
IT'S ONLY POOR OLD UNCLE SAM  
From the *Sun* (New York)



PLAY IN YOUR OWN BACK YARD

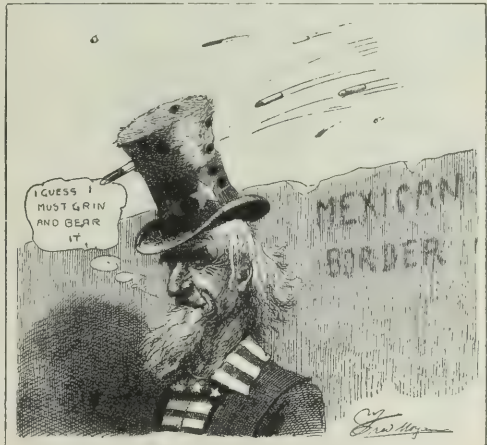
(The American nations, to the warring countries of Europe) From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco)

The characteristic Chinese cartoon reproduced below appeared on October 10, the anniversary of the Wuchang rebellion. The old man represents China, and the divisions marked off by dotted lines are labeled "First Year," "Second Year," and "Third Year" [of the Chinese Republic]. The Chinese Republic has already surmounted several hills in its national progress, and in the cartoon is seen approaching the largest, representing the present world war. The descent that follows signifies the easy path ahead of China if this peak is successfully scaled. The man's black hair typifies the black-haired Chinese peoples unified in the Republic.



UNCLE SAM TO VERA CRUZ: "SO LONG,—TAKE CARE OF YOURSELF!"

From the *Tribune* (Los Angeles)

THE INNOCENT BYSTANDER  
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)

A NATION'S DIFFICULT PATH

From the *Eastern Times* (Shanghai)





THE MISFIT TAILORS  
From the Knickerbocker Press (Albany)



INSIDE INFORMATION WANTED  
From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle)



"WHEN HALF THE WORLD IS ON FIRE!"  
From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle)



"I BELIEVED THAT ONCE"  
From the Evening Sun (New York)



THE TWO SIDES OF THE QUESTION OF THE NATIONAL DEFENSE

"I heartily disapprove of burglars. I will therefore dispense with my burglar alarms and firearms, and thus I, at least, shall have taken a great step in advance toward that ideal state to which we all look forward."



"I hate burglars,—but as long as there are burglars, and there is no one to protect my interests but myself, it is up to me to be prepared for them."

From the Register and Leader (Des Moines)

# DEMOCRACY AND PEACE

## A MESSAGE FROM SENATOR ROOT

[No living statesman, according to the opinion of Europe and America, has done more in practical ways to promote the cause of peace than Elihu Root, to whom was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for the year 1912. As a member of the cabinet in the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations, Mr. Root led in the task of bringing peace and order into the governments of Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines. As Secretary of State, he and Ambassador Bryce cleared away a number of outstanding questions between the United States and Great Britain, some of them relating to Canada. His sympathetic and broad-minded view of Western Hemisphere affairs greatly promoted good will between the United States and the republics of South America. He is soon to retire from the United States Senate, but remains a member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague. He will also continue as president of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.—THE EDITOR.]

December 10, 1914.

MY DEAR DOCTOR SHAW:

I UNDERSTAND that the proposed celebration of the hundred years of peace is to be postponed because, at the very time when we should be celebrating, nearly all of Europe and much of Asia and Africa are engaged in the most tremendous war ever known.

The coincidence recalls De Tocqueville's criticism upon democracies. He said:

Foreign politics demand scarcely any of those qualities which a democracy possesses; and they require, on the contrary, the perfect use of almost all those faculties in which it is deficient. . . . A democracy is unable to regulate the details of an important undertaking, to persevere in a design, and to work out its execution in the presence of serious obstacles. It cannot combine its measures with secrecy, and will not await their consequences with patience. These are qualities which more especially belong to an individual or to an aristocracy; and they are precisely the means by which an individual people attains a predominant position.

The eighty years which have passed since De Tocqueville wrote have witnessed a great development of democratic government and much-increased opportunity to judge of its strength and weakness.

### WAR BELONGS TO AUTOCRACIES

It seems now that the very qualities of monarchical or aristocratic government which De Tocqueville assumed to be necessary for the conduct of foreign affairs tend to make continually recurring wars inevitable, while the deficiencies which De Tocqueville ascribed to democratic government tend towards the preservation of peace.

Of course, the difficulties of international relations in Europe are vastly greater than in

America, yet there is enough similarity to make a comparison suggestive.

### NORTH AMERICAN AMITY

Between the Atlantic and the Pacific we have two peoples living under essentially democratic government, stretching along more than three thousand miles of boundary, and maintaining peace for a hundred years notwithstanding many serious causes of controversy, such, for instance, as the Northeastern Boundary, the Oregon Boundary, the Alaskan Boundary, the Fenian Disturbances, the Caroline Affair, the Fisheries Disputes. An examination of their history shows that what De Tocqueville said of democracies was true of both these countries, and that neither country had any particular policy. Neither was seeking to "attain a predominant position" through "an important undertaking," through "persevering in design," or "combining measures with secrecy." Both peoples were going on attending to their own business, pressing forward their production and trade and means of self-improvement, each getting very angry with the other at times and getting over it again, but neither of them really having anything which would be called a foreign policy in the European sense.

### "POLICIES" NOT DEMOCRATIC

On the other side of the Atlantic have been all the qualities which De Tocqueville ascribes to "an individual or an aristocracy"; definite governmental policies persisting from generation to generation, "perseverance in design," "measures combined with secrecy" as "means for individual peoples to attain predominant positions." The most strenuous efforts towards conciliation, good under-



standing, kindly feeling, between nations have failed to penetrate beneath the surface of things, dispel national suspicions of each other's designs, or prevent the working out of these different policies into inevitable war.

The contrast tends to show that democratic government, for the very reason that it has no specific and persistent foreign policies, is more favorable to peace than the old system of government.

It is true that democracy brews its own dangers. Popular prejudice, misunderstanding, excited feeling, impulse, are all liable

to threaten peace in a democracy; but they can be dealt with by education, discussion, exposure of the truth, while the qualities of self-restraint and considerate judgment, which are essential to the successful self-government of a democracy, are precisely the qualities which are needed for the maintenance of international peace; so that, as a people grows more competent to govern itself, it more naturally and readily keeps the peace with its neighbors.

Very sincerely yours,

ELIHU ROOT.

*U. S. Senate, Washington.*

# AMERICA'S FUTURE POSITION

A MESSAGE FROM HON. JOSEPH H. CHOATE

[Mr. Choate, whose mature wisdom makes him one of the most valued of our "elder statesmen," has for a year or two past taken a leading part in the conferences with English and Canadian leaders in plans for celebrating the hundred years of peace. He was chairman of the American delegation at the last Hague Conference, and for six years American Ambassador at London. He is an officer of the Society for the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes, and a great authority in constitutional and international law. He is a "pacifist," but not too sanguine in his view of the practical processes of history.—THE EDITOR.]

*December 11, 1914.*

MY DEAR MR. SHAW:

I GLADLY avail myself of your kind request that I should say a few words to your great company of readers about the hundred years of peace between all the English-speaking peoples of the world, which will be completed on Christmas Eve with the centennial of the signing of the Treaty of Ghent on December 24, 1814.

It is a source of deep regret to the Committee of Arrangements that the awful war, now devastating Europe, has prevented the carrying out at this time of the program which it had arranged for this celebration both in England and in America; but I hope that at the least, on days to be fixed by agreement between the committees in the United States, Great Britain, and Canada, suitable services commemorative of this great event will take place in the churches and schools of all three nations, so that it will be brought home to the hearts of all the people.

In common with many other short-sighted people, I had hoped and believed, until the outbreak of this war, that we should have no more wars between great nations, although it was hardly to be expected that conflicts

between great nations and small ones, which the former were greedy to overwhelm or absorb, would never occur again.

But it seems now that civilization has as yet hardly begun to eradicate the fighting spirit in man. For certainly the peoples of Germany, Belgium, France, Great Britain, Austria, and Russia together contain the last results of civilization; and yet they are fighting, day by day, some with good motives and some with bad, but all with the most savage desperation and desire to destroy each other.

## OUR OPPORTUNITY

Still, I am not without hope that out of this terrible torrent of evil and mutual massacre good will come in the end, and in a way to justify the hopes of the pacifists, of whom I am proud to be one. If we can maintain our neutrality and keep out of this war and at the same time prove ourselves friendly to all the nations engaged in it,—as I think we shall under the wise and prudent conduct of President Wilson,—the United States will, I believe, not only be called into consultation by the warring nations, when they are no longer able to keep up the fight, but will practically be

able to dictate the terms of peace between them, one of which must, if possible, be an effectual guarantee against any future outbreak of the horrible spirit of militarism which has caused the present war.

And I am encouraged in this belief by reading the recent Message of President Wilson and the Annual Reports of the Secretaries of War and of the Navy, which, taken together, appear to show a steadfast determination on the part of our Federal Government to have us prepared always for effectual self-defense, which is a necessary condition of our national existence.

#### DEFENSE MEASURES NECESSARY

A strong and increasingly strong navy, adequate to the defense of our enormous seacoast, of the Panama Canal, of our coast-wise and rapidly growing foreign commerce, and of the great cities on the seaboard, seems to be assured. Exactly how President Wilson's suggestion of a well-equipped and efficient militia is to be arranged between the Federal and State Governments does not appear, but it ought to be so arranged that every young man, somewhere between the ages of seventeen and twenty-one, shall be so trained as to be well developed physically and to learn to shoot, which,—as Lord Roberts said,—was a fundamental necessity, so that, if necessary for the defense of a nation, they could at short notice be converted into soldiers. How this is to be done I do not know, but certainly it must be done if we would be safe from attack. For any other great nation will have at any time just as much cause for attacking us as Germany had for attacking Belgium. If we thus stand in the position of a mighty nation, always ready to defend itself and never willing to attack any other nation, we shall be able to speak with authority when the long-postponed day of possible peace shall come.

#### AMERICA'S INFLUENCE FOR PEACE

It is a mistake to suppose that there is any mania for militarism among our people. They want nothing but peace; but they do want and will insist upon our being ready to defend ourselves if attacked.

On these conditions I feel sure that we may count upon another hundred years of lasting peace between all the English-speaking peoples, and also on a more effectual guarantee than we have heretofore had of peace between the exhausted nations of Europe.

Of course, the end of this war will see us by far the most powerful nation in the world, and if the policy pointed out by Secretary Daniels is pursued, we shall perhaps in the fullness of time become ourselves the mistress of the seas without incurring hostility or attack from any nation, and shall be the great factor for preserving universal peace.

#### HAGUE AGREEMENTS MUST BE RESTORED

When we met at The Hague in June, 1907, at the opening of the Second Hague Conference, which was attended by all the nations of the earth, universal peace prevailed all the world over,

"No war or battle's sound  
Was heard the world around."

Now all the covenants and agreements in which that Conference resulted have been treated as scraps of paper and scattered to the winds. But, perhaps, the terrible distress and exhaustion brought upon all the great nations of Europe by this destructive war will enable us, if we are in a position to exercise our rightful power as a nation, to secure the restoration of all those covenants, and to prevent their ever being broken again.

Yours very truly,

JOSEPH H. CHOATE.

*New York City.*





# AMERICA'S ACHIEVEMENT —EUROPE'S FAILURE FROM A CANADIAN STANDPOINT

BY DR. JAMES A. MACDONALD

[Dr. Macdonald's great talents as an editor and writer were first disclosed in his conduct of Presbyterian periodicals in Canada. For the past fourteen years he has been editor-in-chief of one of the Dominion's foremost newspapers, the *Daily Globe*, of Toronto. He is one of the leaders of Canadian thought and educational life, and a governor of the Toronto University. He comes of several generations of Scotch-Canadian ancestors, and was educated in the universities of Canada and Great Britain, beginning his active career as a Presbyterian minister. He is one of the directors of the World's Peace Foundation, and is broad-minded enough to appreciate all that is worth while in other countries besides his own.—THE EDITOR.]

**T**WO things stand out unique and unforgettable in the contribution the year 1914 has made to the history of the world. One is America's greatest achievement: the other is Europe's colossal failure.

Civilization stands aghast at the collapse of European ideals. All the highest achievements of the nations, all the things that make for progress and freedom and justice, the work of a thousand years and the hopes of a thousand more,—all have been crowded back into the melting-pot of brutal war. At its best war is barbarism. Brute-force belongs to the brute stages of human development. The wholesale carnage of these weeks in Belgium and France and Austria and on the borders of Germany and Russia is a triumph of the savage instincts in humanity. No matter who is responsible for it, the lining up for mutual slaughter of millions upon millions of men from the foremost nations of Europe, for the alleged purpose of settling some international dispute, is a blank denial of civilization, a crime against humanity, an apostasy from Christ.

Over against that ghastly failure of Europe is presented in America just now the celebration of a full century of unbroken peace between the greatest Empire the world ever saw and the world's greatest Republic. This is indeed the wonder of the world: more than 400,000,000 people of all races and colors and languages, covering over one-quarter of the land area of the globe, live at peace under one flag; under another flag live nearly 100,000,000 of as progressive people as the world knows; and these two flags for a hundred years, fold in fold, entwined in a common ideal, for a common pur-

pose, to promote the freedom and progress and peace of all humanity. In these days, these days of staggering and bitterness, when the war-cloud of Europe looms blackest, when its thunders speak of death and its lightnings flash of hell, I turn again to America, and, at the close of this unparalleled century of Anglo-American civilization, I thank God and take courage for all the world.

## WHAT THE UNITED STATES HAS DONE

In preparing the way for America's greatest achievement the American colonies of the Eighteenth century played a necessary and notable part. They achieved one thing which informed and thoughtful citizens of Canada and Great Britain now know was unique and of world-significance. That one thing was the declaration of the right of a free people to govern themselves, the declaration before all the world that any people who desire self-government and are fit for self-government must be given the chance and responsibility of governing themselves; the supreme declaration of democracy that the authority of all human government is based on the consent of the governed.

## NOT FOR INDEPENDENCE

It was not, indeed, for independence the American patriots strove; it was for self-government. Independence may be only the noisy clamor of the lawbreaker and the libertine. But self-government any free people of the Anglo-Saxon breed must have or be slaves. National autonomy, for men of the British blood, is of the very essence of national freedom. George Washington and

Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton proved themselves sons of the blood when, against the arrogance of the monarch and the ignorance of the aristocracy of England, they stood, in the hour of supreme struggle, for the rights of British freemen in New England and in the South.

Self-government was the end. The Declaration of Independence came to be the means. Had any other way been known to history by which a colony could come to national self-government, except the way of national separation, the American colonists of 1776 might have taken that other way. But the world knew no other way. The colonies took the old way of revolution, paid the old price, suffered the old loss, and won the old prize. That contribution to world democracy, despite the losses and sacrifices which revolution always brings, marked in itself a new epoch in world history, and is the greatest achievement of the United States of America.

#### WHAT CANADA HAS ACHIEVED

Canada also has made a great contribution to the political thinking and the progress of the world. It is even yet the habit in some quarters to call Canada a "colony," and to regard the Canadian Dominion as having done nothing of which the world may take note. That habit persists not in the United States merely, or in Britain, but in Canada as well. It is still counted for loyalty with some Canadians to ascribe every Canadian achievement to Britain (or, as they say, England), and to confess Canada's littleness and lack of achievement in the thought and government of the world.

And yet history, even the short history of Canada, records the fact that in the struggle and movement which confederated the British North American Provinces into the Dominion of Canada and gave to the new Dominion the rights and responsibilities of free national self-government a thing was done which was absolutely without precedent, an achievement which has changed forever the political history of the world.

#### SELF-GOVERNMENT, NOT SEPARATION

What is that supreme achievement of Canada? It is the gain of national self-government, without the loss of the nation's historic background. Self-government had to come to Canada as surely as it had to come to the United States. The day of its coming, which ended in the Quebec Conference of 1865 and the passing of the British North Amer-

ica act in 1867, was a long and stormy day. No man saw clearly. There was no blazed trail. No people had ever gone from colonial subjection to national self-government except by one road,—the road of separation. There were those in Canada who believed that self-government must take that one road of separation, and they fought against self-government. In Britain statesmen in both parties thought the separation of Canada inevitable. They were prepared to grant not confederation merely, but independence as well. Beaconsfield and Gladstone both thought what was called confederation and autonomy would lead straight to the independence and separation of Canada from the Empire.

It has come about, however, that not by constraint, not by compulsion, but by the free and deliberate choice of Canadians themselves, Canada's Imperial relations are what they are, and in the great days to come shall be what Canadians choose to make them. Not in tariff and trade merely, but in all the great choices of Canadian nationhood the law of the nation stands:—

"The gates are mine to open,  
And the gates are mine to close."

And that achievement of national self-government within the world-circle of the British Empire, free from the embitterment of war or the alienations of strife, is Canada's greatest achievement. It is a new, an original, an epoch-making thing in the history of the world.

#### TRANSFORMING THE EMPIRE

And Canada's achievement for herself changed for the world the constitution and spirit of the whole British Empire. It did more. It made for the Empire a new prestige and a greater prominence among the nations. On the old lines the Empire could not endure. The old idea of "Imperium," with its centralized sovereignty and its subject states, had no future for sons of the British blood. Its day was done. Unless there came a new idea the break-up of the Empire was inevitable. The coming of Canada brought that new idea,—the idea of national freedom and national autonomy, not without, but within, the Imperial circle. Canada achieved it. After Canada came Australia, then New Zealand, and South Africa only yesterday.

#### NORTH AMERICA'S ACHIEVEMENT

But the greatest thing of all is the joint achievement of these two English-speaking



nations of North America. That supreme achievement which North America can show the world is an international boundary line between two nations across which in a hundred years neither nation ever once launched a menacing army or fired a hostile gun. Think of that achievement! A thousand miles up the mighty St. Lawrence, a thousand miles along the Great Lakes, a thousand miles across the open prairie, a thousand miles over a sea of mountains,—four thousand miles where nation meets nation and sovereignty meets sovereignty, but never a fortress, never a battleship, never a gun, never a sentinel on guard! Four thousand miles of civilized and Christianized internationalism,—that is North America's greatest achievement.

#### WHY AMERICA ACHIEVED

And why America's achievement? Why America's alone? Not because these two nations are spent and wasted forces, degenerate sons of coward sires, weak to defend a national right, slow to resent a national insult. No redder, prouder, hotter blood ever beat in British veins than the Pilgrim blood of New England, the Cavalier blood of Virginia, the Celtic blood of North Carolina, or the blood of the Ulster Scot of Kentucky and Tennessee. The same blood, red, proud, hot, throbs through Canadian veins from Cape Breton to Vancouver. Not blood from Britain alone, but from France as well, and from Germany. All the great war nations of Europe, through the generations, have slit their own veins and poured their best blood, their hot war blood, into the heart of America. If blood tells, that blood should tell in us.

#### AMERICA'S WORD TO THE WORLD

A civilized international boundary and a century of peace. That is America's greatest achievement. That thing, unique, original, North America alone has done. And because of that achievement these two nations have earned the right, when this wicked war is over, to stand up in the councils of the nations and teach the homelands of American colonists the more excellent way. What the sons in America have done on the Great Lakes, on the St. Lawrence, on the Niagara, and across the sweeping plains, the fathers in Britain, in France, and in Germany might do, ought to do, on the North Sea and in the Channel. It can be done on all the continents. The jungle can be made a neighborhood. The remainders of barbarism can

be swept away on every boundary line. If America takes her stand and leads the way all the continents will do it.

Here we stand, we of America, facing the colossal failure of Europe. The boundary lines between European countries are yawning with forts, bristling with bayonets, and most of them bedabbled with blood. For forty years those defenses have been a growing menace to all the world. Europe has been an armed camp. The nations lived in the Fool's Paradise of Armed Peace until they found it the Fool's Hell of Bloody War. They all said: "In Peace prepare for War." Here in North America our two nations for a hundred years have been saying: "In Peace prepare for More Peace." In Europe they got, as they were bound to get, the thing they prepared for,—War. In America we got, as we deserved to get, the thing we prepared for,—a hundred years of More Peace.

#### AMERICA'S SHARE

North America has become a neighborhood; but Europe has remained a jungle. The world is too small for any continent to live to itself, or for any country to stand alone. The United States in this war is neutral; and neutral, I hope and pray, it may remain. But neutrality has not saved the people and the interests of your Republic from its share of the world's sorrows, or of the incalculable suffering and loss which this war entails. Canada was worlds away from the mad vortex of European militarism, but the widening circle of that awful maelstrom has swept Canada into its deathful whirl. There is not a shore in the Southern Seas, there is not an island in the lone Pacific, that has not felt the dread undertow of Europe's upheaval.

America had indeed dreamed of unbroken Peace. The Fathers of Independence planned it for the United States. To Canada war is a new and surprising experience. We had all thought a war in Europe never could come nigh our dwelling. But it has come. And it shall come nearer still, into our homes, into the bleeding places of our hearts. We have been parties to the world's uncured and unchristian folly. The Republic and the Empire both have said: "In Peace prepare for War." With half the homes of Europe bleeding at every pore, we cannot expect and we cannot ask that our homes and our counting-houses and our nations and our continent, alone in all the world, shall be spared the world's awful baptism of blood.

## AMERICA'S HOPE

But a new day shall dawn. Out of this weirdness and welter a new world shall rise. Up from this horror and death America must come with its schools and colleges and universities and churches: America, having seen enough of blood and carnage in the old world to take a fresh stand for the new: America, with its eye undimmed, its faith unbroken, and its hope triumphant in a new life, a larger life, a life not of militarism and world-mastership, but of love and justice and the brotherhood of man!

Please God, this will be the end of autocracies, the end of despotisms, the end of war-lords, the end of secret diplomacies of deceit, the end of menacing alliances and threatening ententes, the ultimate and everlasting end of the Religion of Valor, of the Cult of Violence, and of the barbaric appeals to brute Force.

And please God, too, this will be the end of all ambitious and arrogant Imperialism,

the end of that ignorant and vulgar jingo lust for colonies and for mastership and for the domination of the world. A new-born world already begins to heave above the horizon line. It will be a world of free nationalities: a world of righteous democracies, in which there must be no supremacy and no servitude: a world where no master will be allowed on land and no mistress needed on the sea. Over free peoples there can be no dictator, no autocracy, no mastership. Every nation, great or small, must be master in its own house,—little Belgium as truly as great Germany, the year-old China as truly as the ages-old Britain. The Might of all must defend the Right of each. The glory of the Strong must be in the help of the Weak. The Ten Commandments must be written on the heart of the world's democracy; and into the Congresses, the Parliaments, and the Chancelleries of the nations He must come whose Truth and Justice give the Right to Reign.

# THE PEACE OF GHENT AND THE WAR OF 1914

BY BARON D'ESTOURNELLES DE CONSTANT

[In the pages immediately following this article will be found some account of the distinguished French statesman who sends this earnest message to America out of the fulness of his knowledge and conviction. He is a Senator of France, an eloquent speaker, and was a member of the French delegation in both of The Hague Conferences. He is also, like Senator Root, a member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague. It would hardly be expected that he could,—in writing just now,—divest himself of his point of view as a French statesman in active public life. But unquestionably his attitude towards the German people is not one that fails to appreciate the real value of their achievements in education, science, and industry.—THE EDITOR.]

I SHOULD like at the beginning of this communication to use the REVIEW OF REVIEWS as a medium through which to extend thanks to my loyal American friends for their expressions of sympathy for my country and of abhorrence for the war which has been made upon us.

We had not desired this war; we had sought to prevent its outbreak. But, now that the irreparable mischief has been done, we would sacrifice everything rather than that a similar outrage against civilization should ever again be possible. France, if previously divided, has to-day only one heart,—a unified, collective energy. The German armies will have worn themselves out with killing, burning and destroying before they

will make the first impression upon the firm will of France to drive them back.

We believe we shall gain the final victory because we are defending much more than our own possessions. We defend the welfare of the whole world; more than ever before, we are fighting for liberty, progress and peace. This is something that German militarism seems incapable of understanding. We shall fight on for years, if necessary, and even to death itself rather than submit to a law or principle so hateful. The whole strength of that cause is in brute force. Ours lies rather in the power of ideas. This stupendous war, which the new world is now witnessing, is not a new thing for us: it sets grappling with each other, not merely two



groups of nations, but two opposing spirits, the spirit of conquest and the spirit of independence; two irreconcilable systems, the one grown out of date and condemned by all the experience of history; the other modern and as yet not fully organized, but universally acclaimed. Between brute force, abnormal and out-of-date as it is, and all the growing power of mind, the governments of the world might well observe a prudent neutrality. The peoples themselves have already made their choice,—particularly the young American Republics, since they themselves have all arisen out of revolt against oppression. When it is contended that there are true Americans who favor the success of German militarism, I say I do not believe it. Such a preference would be contrary to nature, the repudiation of their very origins, of their most noble aspirations, of their very reason for existence.

This is what I should like to demonstrate upon the occasion of the commemoration of the peace of Ghent.

#### A CENTURY OF PEACE VERSUS A HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

The centenary of the Treaty of Ghent was about to be celebrated on both sides of the Atlantic. Preparations were being made with enthusiasm. A hundred years of peace achieved over ignorance, ancient custom, and egoism, achieved by human patience and perseverance,—a magnificent prelude to the opening of the Panama Canal! What a measure for future triumphs! What a proof of the possibility of looking forward to other centuries of peace in the future! This argument, based on a century's peace, I have many times adduced, particularly in my book, "The United States of America."<sup>1</sup>

I have employed it to prove the falsity of the presumption that there are "inevitable wars" and to protest against the rivalries of an armed peace.

Europeans are quite unable to understand this hundred years' peace of the English-speaking nations, a peace of disarmament, a peace of the spirit. It has been a peace which seemed paradoxical, a peace between two nations hitherto irreconcilable, not merely two enemy nations, but worse, two enemy brothers who had become rivals. It is possible that this peace of a hundred years has not transformed human nature,—one would not expect that,—but it has broken men of the habit of believing that war is a solution. It

is peace this time that is a solution, and a real one. In proclaiming this result a moral and material triumph will be established. This gladsome peace of a hundred years will take its place in the realm of the spirit, in literature, and in history as a creation of the new world, as a splendid new achievement to set over against that ancient fact of a "Hundred Years' War," as a spontaneous advance commended to the consideration of the world, as a recognized advance, since the old solution offered by war was not only abandoned, but replaced by a new method, long contested, but finally deemed worthy of acceptance,—international arbitration.

#### DIFFICULTIES SETTLED BY ARBITRATION

The commemoration of the Treaty of Ghent accomplished two things. It attested at the same time the uselessness of war and the efficiency of judicial, friendly methods of settlement, a far greater efficacy than had been thought possible, for this long experience of two great free peoples and the marvelous increase of their prosperity pointed the way to the world achievement of The Hague.

It will not be alleged in Europe that these nations have not had sufficient experience. It is sometimes forgotten that there were plenty of difficult points between the two brother enemies who have become reconciled, but who remain neighbors along a difficult frontier of four thousand miles, along which, from one side at least, there are often annoying customs exactions. It is sometimes forgotten that there has been more than one temptation for each to denounce this agreement of peace. The American war of secession,—was not this a unique opportunity for England to begin the so-called inevitable war? But no. Rather than seize this occasion for hostilities, England preferred to submit the question of the *Alabama* to arbitration. The United States, for its part, scorned to take advantage of the Crimean War, of the Indian mutiny, of the Egyptian embroglio, or the South African war, or of any other occasion, to attack England. At the same time, the questions between the two countries, which war alone seemed competent to settle, included those of the Great Lakes, the fisheries of Bering Sea and Newfoundland, the Irish problem, the questions of Alaska, of British Columbia, of Venezuela, of Panama, and how many others!

#### CONTRIBUTION TO THE HAGUE CONFERENCES

The long peace of Ghent, far from preparing for war by enervating the spirits and

<sup>1</sup> A volume published in French in Paris, by Armand Colin, 1913, and to be brought out in English in New York, by the Macmillan Company, in 1915.

courage of the two countries, has stimulated those qualities. This peace has become a point of departure, the beginning of a régime without precedent, a period of new economic rivalries, a period of education and mutual discipline. It has thereby rendered to civilization an inestimable service. Its value cannot be too highly appreciated. The representatives of Great Britain and of the United States, at the first Peace Conference,—such men as Lord Pauncefoot, Andrew D. White and Seth Low,—had behind them the uninterrupted course of a century when they brought to The Hague, in collaboration with their liberal colleagues of Europe, their contribution to that agreement, which remains, despite anything that may be said to the contrary, and which will remain, it may be said, the great achievement for good of the two conferences: I speak of the agreement for the pacific settlement of international conflicts. Even if we admit that nothing else remains of these two great conferences, this one thing will more than console us for the failure to provide agreements to regulate “the laws and customs of war on land and sea.”

#### THE PERIL OF MILITARISM

For my own part I have never believed in these efforts to “humanize” warfare. War cannot be humanized. Laws and justice cannot be adapted to war, which is itself destructive of law and justice. The essential thing that remains of these conferences at The Hague is a method of procedure in accordance with law, a mechanism of conciliation and of mediation, the good offices of arbitration. That will accomplish a great deal.

The more thoroughly the world gives up hope of humanizing war, the better will it comprehend the necessity of preventing that calamity. Such has been the effect of the agreement of The Hague, since it has been permitted to settle, without offending anyone and calling for only a minimum expenditure of funds, some serious European differences, including that of the Dogger Banks, of Casablanca, of the *Carthage*, and the *Marouba*. The peace of Ghent will have illustrated for the principal civilized nations a method of making trial of tribunals of conciliation, inquiry, and arbitration, and will assure success, since the decisions of such tribunals or commissions, far from calling forth any protests, have dispelled misunderstandings, and established friendly feelings. This is quite contrary to war, which has engendered nothing except hatred and reprisal.

Thus the practise of bringing about justice

by international conciliation has penetrated, little by little, into the ethics of our time. The menace of war is losing ground, but its evil genius, militarism, remains on guard. The militaristic press of Europe does not talk of the peace of Ghent as an improvement in the good relations of peoples. The militaristic organs discredit as much as they possibly can the spirit of harmony, and now they even affect an indignation against these calamities which are their own work. War is for them nothing but a beginning. The end sought is vengeance. For war is not between governments, they tell us. It is waged by peoples, by races. It will always be. Let the United States and all the republics of the new world prepare for it.

There is the danger against which you must guard. You believe that militarism has already done all the evil it can. No, you are now its latest victim. If it succeeds in winning over you in your turn, you Americans, to this obsession, then I cannot even think what will become of humanity without refuge from this monster that is raging everywhere. I have long wished to protest and to ward this away from you, just as I have wished to ward it from my own country, from all countries if possible, from Germany herself. This duty impelled me to visit the United States four times. It was to accomplish this duty that I made my appeal to the spirit of American resistance in 1902, in 1907, in 1911, but particularly in 1912. That is why I am planning to go this year to South America. It is why to-day I am writing again.

#### THE AMERICAN CONTRASTED WITH THE EUROPEAN ATTITUDE

I have seized desperately every possible occasion to talk with your statesmen, your diplomats, your intellectuals, to address your universities, your young people, your women, your children, your legislatures and municipal councils, your churches, your clubs, your industrial organizations and your agricultural and commercial societies, and I have had the happiness of always finding among you those to whom I could speak. But listen now to a voice more powerful than that of a single man. Hear and learn the lesson of calamities brought on wilfully and that cannot be made good. Listen! The danger which Europe cannot now ward off will be your peril to-morrow; our misfortune will be your misfortune, if you do not take the right point of view, if our calamity leads you to make our mistakes. Profit, I beg of



you, by your experience with the peace of Ghent, but profit also by our experience in the present war.

What a contrast!

In the United States (if I except your war with Spain, which all the world knows to-day,—without daring to say so,—could have been avoided) peace, with you, has become such a state of mind that you passed unscathed through the Russo-Japanese war and resisted all those petty, local endeavors to frighten you with the scarecrow of the Yellow Peril. You have even escaped the mad temptation to intervene in Mexico. It is true that you lacked an adequate army and that a navy was almost useless there. But you might have let yourself be dragged along like so many others. You might have exaggerated your available forces and not reckoned sufficiently with the obstacles to be surmounted. But the fact remains that you resisted. That is an immense advance of which you will always be proud. You remain masters of your destiny.

In Europe quite the contrary has taken place. France did not want the war. She wished to settle reasonably and equitably with the ever-increasing anxieties resulting from an armed peace. Our last general elections bore testimony to our pacific state of mind, to say nothing of the efforts of our representatives at Berne, Basle, Heidelberg, and Nuremberg to bring about by mutual concessions a Franco-German reconciliation. To these efforts the militarism of Zabern replied by the shameful challenge which you all know. England did not wish the war. The English Parliament would not have sanctioned Britain's entrance if the cynicism of German aggression had not forced it to do so. Belgium did not want war. Russia, it may be said, was not ready and consequently asked for nothing more than the chance decently to escape the conflict. This she proved during the two Balkan wars. Serbia, exhausted by those two dreadful conflicts, wished for nothing but a chance to recuperate. Germany herself wished peace, and Austria also, generally speaking, I am convinced.

Now see the great difference between the new world and the old. The United States is free, Europe is not. The United States has proven that war can be avoided. Europe has been brought up more or less in the opposite tradition. The day when, during an attack of almost incredible madness, the Austrian Government, supported by the German, took upon itself to declare war on Ser-

via, the other nations had not even time to confer. They were forced to defend themselves against a sudden, although long-prepared, attack. In two days the mischief was done, the neutrality of Belgium violated, Great Britain forced to mobilize, and the town of Ghent, only yesterday chosen as a place at which to celebrate the hundred years of peace, became nothing more than one of the innumerable victims of war. Happily it did not resist and was not compelled to submit to the rule of force, which has been the fate of Liège, of Louvain, of Malines, and all the towns and villages and dwellings destroyed and defiled by the scientific barbarism of the German armies. The venerable town of Ghent had to give up its celebrations; German barracks, or ruined Belgian town,—Prussian militarism gave it no other choice.

#### GHEENT REMINDS US OF THE COSTS OF WAR

What a contrast between what should have been and what is! A hopeless contrast? No. A moral lesson has already been drawn from this with practical consequences for the new world at least.

On the twenty-fourth of December, Christmas Eve, the anniversary of the signing of the Treaty of Ghent, the two parliaments, the one at London and the other at Washington, had planned at the same hour, at the same moment, in accordance with the admirable suggestion of the Hon. Elihu Root, to pause for five minutes in their proceedings in order that all their members might do homage to peace at last victorious over war. In this manifestation of joy of confidence, and of gratitude, all civilization would have joined, particularly our own France, the country of the great revolution, younger sister of the American Revolution, and daughter, like her, of the same great spirits.

Americans will not fail to draw a lesson from this disappointment at Ghent. They will see what war costs. They will measure the monstrous disproportion between the trifling cause and the results beyond repair. I do not speak of the economic calamity. The celebration at Ghent would have been nothing but a prelude to the opening of the Panama Canal and the World's Fair at San Francisco. The war will have nullified, as it always does, all that science and human care has accumulated through the years. Americans will suffer from financial calamities and by the ruin of the greatest and most cherished projects of humanity. They will be horrified by the frightful bloodshed

of which no one, after four months of battle without ceasing, can see the end. They will be aroused by all the grief, the sufferings, the wounds, the illnesses and the miseries that will follow this war. They will be indignant at the splendid plans, the deeds of heroism, the professions, the geniuses of which this war will deprive civilization. They will not be able to celebrate the peace of Ghent, but they will curse the war and those who brought it about.

#### WHAT GERMANY MIGHT HAVE BEEN

Americans will see above all things what Prussian militarism has made out of a great country like Germany. They will see how Germany, at the very moment when she had but to harvest the fruit of a century's work, will have lost all, thanks to the pride and stupidity of militarism; how she has been the victim of a perverted education,—a brutal system in which force takes precedence of justice.

There are, indeed, extenuating circumstances. Germany was so long herself a field of battle, a crossing-ground where armies have come from all points of the compass to hurl themselves at one another for mutual destruction. She has been trained in the school of the great conquerors, and now the spirit of conquest is in her blood. But it is her turn to pay for the glory.

She need only have contented herself with her own life. If she had not willed to dominate and oppress other peoples, Poles, Danes, and Alsatians, who were not willing and never will be willing to be made slaves, she could have been the bond of union for Europe. She had only to wait upon time and the expansion of her hard-working population. Her peaceful conquests were beyond criticism and irresistible in Europe and the entire world. The vigor of her economic activity had opened to her all markets, all continents, just as the genius of her musicians had gained for her the homage of all souls. She has turned from the symphonies of Beethoven to listen to the cltrap of Bernhardt. Rather than make herself beloved, she has preferred to be feared. She has become a peril when she might have been an asset, a menace when she might have been a guarantee. She has militarized all Europe, not to say the entire world. She has militarized Russia, of which, it might be said, she thought so little for almost twenty years that when, in 1898, the Czar proposed his conference for disarmament, she opposed it. She has militarized England, which she could

have defeated much more surely by her trade than by her dreadnoughts. She has brought about all around her and against her a union of opposing interests.

#### "GERMANY HAS BEEN DECEIVED"

German militarism has wished to dominate even German intelligence. It has succeeded. It has extorted from Germany's men of intellect unreserved approval.

The history of Germany is that of the pride which goeth before a fall. For forty years Germany has been paying for her victories already won and planning for a victory even greater, the big victory, "the Great Day." Young Germany has been reared in a mystic expectation of this "Great Day." Instead of explaining honestly and patriotically that such an expectation was only folly, all of German literature has exerted itself to make Germany lose her head. The masters, like the pupils, the wise men, and the ignoramuses, every one has lived for the "great day" of "power," "universal domination," when inevitably this "great day" could only mean ruin.

Such was the effect on the imagination of a too credulous people, of theories born in war and conceived for war. Moreover, these theories have not even the merit of novelty. The books of Bernhardt and of all the apostles of "Deutschland über Alles" have simply been plagiarized from the classics of Machiavelli and Joseph de Maistre.

Germany has been deceived. She had, like all the other leading modern nations, the certainty of a great peaceful future. Her government turned her from that road. It has trained her for a barbarous war without any possible issue. It has called down universal execration. Germany has allied herself with Turkey to destroy museums of art, libraries, cathedrals, and even the humblest cottages. She has piled up ruin upon ruin, desecration upon desecration, sacrilege upon sacrilege. And for what contemptible result! To-day her mothers are in tears like our own; her beloved children rot without burial on the same unknown fields, with the cherished children of France. Her dreams of domination have flickered out in a morass of blood and mire.

The peace of Ghent will not be celebrated this year. Americans, however, will continue to honor it, for it has served to promote truth, righteousness, and progress; whereas this war, let loose by Prussian militarism, stands out as the greatest misfortune and the most odious crime of history.



# A WORLD STATESMAN



BARON D'ESTOURNELLES DE CONSTANT,  
SENATOR OF FRANCE

**B**ARON D'ESTOURNELLES DE CONSTANT needs no introduction to many of our readers who have had the pleasure of meeting him, or of hearing him speak on subjects of world interest, during one or more of his four visits to the United States.

From 1895 until 1904 the Baron was Member of the Chamber of Deputies, and for the last ten years he has represented the District of La Sarthe in the French Senate.

Prior to his entrance into the French Parliament he was connected with the Diplomatic Service, notably in Montenegro, London, and The Hague. At the two Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907, as the delegate from France, Baron D'Estournelles de Constant took a leading part.

As President Founder of the Association for International Conciliation he has initiated a most important movement looking toward the betterment of international relations. To this work he may be said to have devoted the best energies of his active life. At home and abroad he has frequently braved international prejudice and animosity in his efforts to bring about a spirit of true friendliness between France and Germany.



GLIMPSES OF THE ANCIENT AND MODERN PARTS OF THE CHATEAU OF CLERMONT-CREANS, HOME OF THE  
BARON D'ESTOURNELLES DE CONSTANT



THE MODERN PART OF THE CHATEAU, ON THE RIVER LOIR, IS TWO OR THREE HUNDRED YEARS OLD

He was awarded the Nobel Peace prize for the year 1909.

The hours not required by his public work are spent in his beautiful home at Créans in the midst of his charming family. At the present time both the Chateau and the Castle are largely given over to hospital use for the wounded.

The breadth of mind of a French Senator who can write so firmly, yet conscientiously, regarding the adversary, in the very midst of deadly war, must be admired and respected by all who read the contribution made by him to this REVIEW in the pages immediately preceding.

If the warning voices of international statesmen like the Baron D'Estournelles de Constant had been duly heeded in Europe, the present war could not have occurred.



THE ANCIENT PARTS OF THE CASTLE AND CHATEAU DATE FROM THE ELEVENTH CENTURY



A GROUP OF CONVALESCENT FRENCH SOLDIERS, WITH SISTERS OF CHARITY, AT THE CRÉANS HOSPITAL ADJACENT TO THE HOME OF THE BARON, WHOSE ESTABLISHMENT IS AT THE SERVICE OF THE WOUNDED



# THE FINAL BATTLE

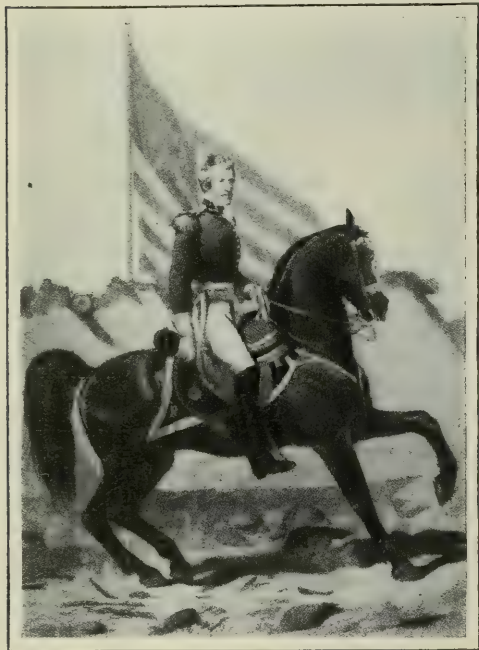
ENGLAND AND AMERICA FOUGHT THEIR LAST FIGHT  
AT NEW ORLEANS ON JANUARY 8, 1815

**I**N New Orleans the scene of the final struggle of the War of 1812 has been chosen as a fitting spot for one of the ceremonies of the Anglo-American Peace Centenary. Appropriate exercises will take place

be noteworthy parades, historical pageants, commemorative addresses, and religious ceremonies. The Cabildo,—the old Spanish armory,—will be opened as a permanent battle abbey museum, to set forth Louisiana's part in the upbuilding of the nation.

However much the battle of New Orleans may have reflected glory on American arms, and influenced our political history by bringing forward the picturesque and forceful personality of "Old Hickory" it will always be regretted; for it occurred fifteen days after the signing of the treaty of peace at Ghent,—on December 24, 1814. The telegraph had not then been invented, and the sailing vessel that bore the news of peace could make but slow progress. The consequent needlessness of this struggle at New Orleans may perhaps serve as a text for the advocates of peace.

It was in the autumn of 1814 that the rumor came of a threatened invasion from England, with New Orleans as the objective point. A fleet of some fifty vessels under Admiral Cochrane, with at least sixteen thousand troops and a thousand guns, duly



GENERAL JACKSON AT NEW ORLEANS

under the auspices of the Louisiana Society.

The celebration will begin on January 8, which is the anniversary of the battle, and the program will continue until the 10th. The monument that has been erected is on the very spot where Jackson's standard flew, on Chalmette battlefield. This monument will be unveiled by the United Daughters of 1776 and 1812. In the original program it was arranged that President Wilson should deliver an address, to be responded to by a representative of Great Britain; and American warships before New Orleans were to fire a salute of one hundred guns. The exigencies of the world war will doubtless have affected some of these plans. But there will

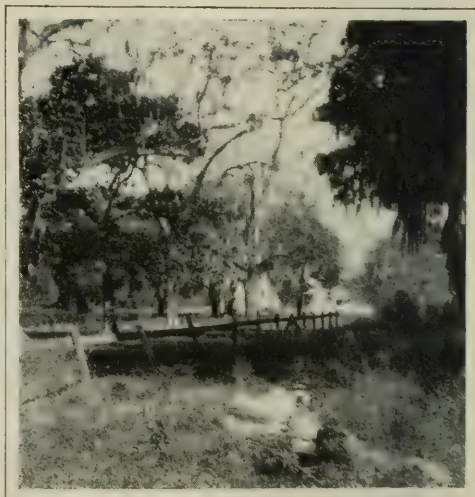


Photo by Stanley Shishy Arthur, New Orleans

## THE SITE OF JACKSON'S EARTH-WORKS

(This grass-grown depression marks the location of the Rodriguez Canal, behind which Jackson's troops were intrenched)



Photo by Stanley Clisby Arthur, New Orleans

#### THE CHALMETTE MONUMENT

(This monument marks the site of the battle of New Orleans, and has been erected on the spot where General Jackson raised his standard. It will be unveiled on January 8)



GENERAL SIR EDWARD M. PAKENHAM

(General Pakenham, Commander of the British troops at the battle of New Orleans, was a brother-in-law of the Duke of Wellington, and had come on his American expedition fresh from distinguished services in the Peninsular wars)

appeared off the coast of Louisiana. The expedition was commanded by Sir Edward M. Pakenham, a veteran of the Peninsular wars, accompanied by Generals Gibbs, Keane, and Lambert, all soldiers of repute. Entering Lake Borgne on December 10, the British destroyed six American gunboats. The undefended city of New Orleans was thrown into a state of great excitement.

Meanwhile Jackson, fresh from his victories over the Creek Indians and recently appointed Major-General of the Army, had arrived from Florida after a long horseback ride through the wilderness. He put the city under martial law and summoned troops from Baton Rouge, Tennessee, and Mississippi. The first skirmish took place two days before Christmas, six miles below New Orleans. A second engagement occurred on New Year's Day, behind the famous cotton-bale breastworks, the British using hogsheads of sugar for defenses. But the decisive battle was still to come. After days and nights spent in vigorous building of earthworks, the

dawn of the 8th of January found the two little armies grimly facing each other for the final struggle. Jackson's 4500 men were entrenched along the Rodriguez Canal.

The British attacked in several divisions, and for two hours the battle raged. But the deadly volleys from the American cannon and muskets played havoc with them. They fell by the hundreds. General Pakenham, riding from the rear to rally his retreating troops, received three shots and died in a few minutes; Generals Gibbs and Keane also fell. The British,—thoroughly repulsed in the short but bloody battle,—left 700 dead upon the field and twice as many wounded. The entire American loss was 71. General Lambert, who had succeeded to the British command, decided to withdraw his troops to his ships, and on the 27th of January sailed away from the shores of Louisiana. Thus ended,—let us hope forever,—the appeal to arms between the United States and Great Britain.



# AN EFFICIENCY EXPERT ON NATIONAL DEFENSE

A MESSAGE FROM HARRINGTON EMERSON

[In response to our request, Mr. Emerson sends the following suggestive notes on the problem of American national defense, and the way of proceeding to analyze the question in order to deal with it. Informal as are his remarks, they will be found to have unusual value.—THE EDITOR.]

*December 12, 1914.*

THE United States Government is in some respects founded on the negation of the fundamental principles of organization, and therefore of efficiency.

Experts are needed for plans, but in our form of government neither those who appoint the experts nor those who pass on the plans are qualified so to do. They may hit it by accident, certainly not by antecedent probability.

Permanence is needed to carry out well-made plans of national defense, but as to our national policies, excepting the shadowy but very real Monroe Doctrine, there is no permanence.

In addition, of course, in regard to national defense we are wholly provincial. Our days of Indian warfare are over; Canada is a well-mannered and very dear neighbor; Mexico is a troublesome, but not a dangerous, neighbor, and we only theoretically know about war.

Our national war plans should be for defense, not for offense.

We cannot rival European armies; we are neither ready for, nor willing to endure universal conscription. While our army and naval officers rank as high in intelligence as first-class civilians, the great bulk of our initiative, brains, and energy have gone into industry, transportation, commerce. It would be a serious drain to divert these qualities to armies and navies; yet without putting the supreme national intelligence into war preparation we could never hope to be of the first rank. We cannot rival Great Britain's navy. A navy depends on submarine cables (less now than before the development of wireless), on coaling stations, on repair refuges. Great Britain has these all over the world; no other power has any to speak of. The hunted German cruisers pounced on defenseless merchantmen. By wonderfully good ability they met and

destroyed an inferior British squadron. They fled from sea to sea, meeting here and there semi-piratical supply boats, and trusting to clandestine wireless messages from neutral shores, only in the end to be cornered and destroyed. Our fate in a naval war with Great Britain would be that of the Germans.

It is not for a man who is not an expert to express any opinion on the comparative value of shore defenses, submarines, and dreadnoughts. Believing in defense, I would personally prefer to see many, many sea-going submarines. Small submarines capable of being carried by fast cruisers might prove very dangerous to dreadnoughts, even off the Falkland Islands.

As to armies, for forty years I have admired the Swiss plan of universal school training, for in early youth there is plenty of time. This Swiss schoolboy training is supplemented with outing drills of the young grown-ups. Switzerland has, I believe, in proportion to population the largest and best prepared army in the world.

In this country, also, every grammar-school boy should be thoroughly drilled, and every high-school boy should be trained for service as a petty officer. The National Military Academy should turn out enough graduates to officer an army of four million, these graduates entering civil life but with obligation to serve in case of war.

How, therefore, shall we be able to plan intelligently as to our national defense?

I do not believe in commission agencies of information. No great invention or any great plan was ever developed by a commission. But how can we secure the one great constructive genius who could give us the perfect plan? The counsel of a Kitchener or of a Bernhardt might be of supreme value in the preliminary stages. Those men have been in it. We have not.

HARRINGTON EMERSON.

*New York City.*

# THE COURSE OF THE WAR IN DECEMBER

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

[For the benefit of many new subscribers, who begin reading the REVIEW OF REVIEWS with the opening of a new year and a new volume, it should be stated that Mr. Simonds is writing of the great war month by month, that his articles began in our issue for last October, and that they will continue as heretofore. It is the common verdict that no writer has thus far succeeded as well as Mr. Simonds in making clear the strategic moves and in helping the reader to see and feel, as well as to comprehend, the terrible conflict as the lines of battle are deadlocked or as new situations develop.—THE EDITOR.]

## I. THE BEGINNING OF THE END

**I**N any general survey of the history of the Great War in its fifth month, the moral rather than the military effect of the operations takes first place. For if the German attack in the opening months might fairly be likened to a forest fire sweeping irresistibly forward over vast districts, ever widening its area of destruction and mounting ever higher in its violence, it is not less patent that, December come, there was east and west in Europe an evident slackening of the fire,—a growing competence on the part of those whose necessity it was to limit, control, extinguish the blaze.

Looking at the fields of operation in December, it was plain that while there had been no success yet in actually extinguishing the conflagration, it had been limited, circumscribed, confined to the narrowest bounds since it broke out. In places it was actually flung back; at no point was it permitted to ravage again many of the districts which it had swept over in the early days of August and September.

In September it was Paris which had been in danger. In October, in November, the German drive for the seacoast, for Calais and Dunkirk, threatened to conquer for the Kaiser that "window on the Channel" which for all Pan-Germans had been the dream of all dreams, the first step in the series which was to acquire for Germany her "place in the sun."

But if in November and in the terrible battle of Ypres, of Flanders, this German advance had been halted, in December it was clear that like the march to Paris the sweep to the Channel had been definitely repulsed. From Switzerland to the North Sea the great German offensive had come to a full

stop, fallen dead, lost the necessary numbers and force, had sunk to the level of a mere siege operation in which the Germans were more frequently on the defensive than the offensive, and one by one towns and villages in Flanders, in Artois, in Champagne, which had been captured in the initial drives, were regained by allied advances, advances measured by rods, not miles, achieved in days, not hours.

For this the explanation was to be found rather in the east than the west, for while her western campaign was still at a crisis Germany had again, as before the Battle of the Marne, to hurry eastward troops necessary to enforce victory in Flanders to avoid the imminent disaster Russian masses had prepared in Poland. East and west, Russian, French and British armies increased in numbers, in effectiveness, in material, particularly in artillery, while Austrian resource and military value declined still more rapidly than before, and at last there seemed to be the approach of a time when German numbers and courage, German efficiency and skill, would no longer avail to keep the battle lines on both fronts outside her own territory.

Looking seaward, too, the decisive defeat of the last German fleet on the high seas,—always inevitable, given the superiority of the allied navies,—served to emphasize once more how fatally the net was being drawn about the German Empire. It served to recall for all Americans the circumstances of the Confederacy, when,—Gettysburg lost, and the Atlantic blockade made effective,—the superiority in resources and numbers of the North was established, and the Civil War settled down to a process of attrition. Then came destruction by campaigns in which neither skill, devotion, nor valor could avail against numbers, wealth, and sea power.



Thus for the outside world December seemed to mark the beginning of the end, not in the sense that the approach of peace was measurably hastened, not that the prospect of a long and terrible war was banished, but simply in the sense that under the political conditions existing, while the ranks of her enemies remained unbroken, there was no longer any promise of ultimate German victory. Germany's problem henceforth seemed to be one of defense not attack, of endurance not conquest. William II was not to conquer Europe as Napoleon did at Austerlitz. Germany was not to control the Continent as France had a little more than a century before. It remained to be seen whether the German Emperor could hold Belgium as Frederick the Great had held Silesia, against the combined military strength of Europe.

## II. IN THE EAST AGAIN

In measuring the Eastern campaign, which in December, as in November, attracted the attention of the whole world, it is necessary to emphasize certain major circumstances. Above all, for the first time in the progress of the Great War, a German army was brought within two steps of destruction. It escaped. German generalship and German courage rose to their highest level in the months of conflict, but the moral effect was not to be mistaken. Already the world began to recall the experience of Napoleon on the road to Moscow; and the German losses suggested his at Borodino, when the very flower of the Grand Army was destroyed by Russian pertinacity. Von Hindenburg's success in taking Lodz, in result as in casualty list, recalled the Napoleonic victory.

For the first time it now became clear that Russia was getting her millions into the field. Handicapped by the greater mobility of her foe, by the tremendous advantage the Germans possessed in the strategic railways inside their own frontiers, by the superior training and equipment of their armies, the Russians now began to demonstrate that all these advantages are not sufficient to enforce victory, when the disparity of numbers is too great. Napoleon's greatest campaign, that in France in 1814, was increasingly in the minds of many, as Von Hindenburg moved rapidly from point to point, striking terrific blows, displaying supreme military skill. But each of the blows failed, fell short of destroying his foe, because his forces were too small.

A new circumstance, too, commanded attention. When Germany had launched her

October thrust at Warsaw, it had compelled Russia to draw back in Galicia, to abandon the siege of Przemyśl, to retreat behind the San River, and send masses from the south to the north. But in December the German offensive operations, made for the same purpose, had up to December 20 proved unavailing. Indeed, while in the earlier advance the Russians had only reached Tarnow, in December their artillery was bombarding Cracow, their infantry partially surrounding that fortress, the sole barrier to Silesia, and their cavalry had again crowned the Carpathians and flowed down into the Hungarian plain. In East Prussia, too, the Russian invasion continued despite German efforts in Poland.

For all this there was the single and simple explanation. To Germany and her Austrian ally there were now lacking the numbers to meet on equal terms the forces arrayed against them in the East and in the West. On both fronts they were now outnumbered. In the West the Germans still held most of Belgium and a thin slice of northern France, but in the East Russian soldiers occupied a corner of East Prussia, and Austria had abandoned all of Galicia save the territory about Cracow and had again evacuated Bukovina. Upwards of 35,000 square miles, with a population of 10,000,000, had thus been temporarily or permanently lost to the two emperors,—a complete set-off for the conquests of Germany in the West.

In examining the progress of the campaign in the East in December three circumstances must be kept in mind. First, the railroad map of Poland, for the whole operations were based upon the railroads. Second, the German strategy, now for the first time shaped by the conditions imposed upon the German General Staff by their enemies. Third, the three phases of the campaign; in the first the Germans almost achieved a second Tannenberg, in the second they narrowly escaped a Sedan, in the third the campaign descended to the level of a deadlock, momentarily at least wholly comparable to that in the West.

## III. THE RAILROAD MAP

Looking at Russian Poland on the map it will be seen that it resembles a gigantic wheel, half its circumference or rim made by the territory of Russia, the other half by Austrian and German territory from East Prussia to Galicia. Warsaw, the capital, is situated about in the center and serves as the hub of this Polish wheel.



EASTERN THEATER OF WAR, SHOWING STRATEGIC RAILWAY LINES

From Warsaw three main railways radiate like the spokes of a wheel. The first, going northwest, reaches the Prussian frontier near Mława, whence it continues to Danzig. The second goes nearly due west, approaches the frontier at Kalisz and crosses it just beyond this town, whence it continues west to Frankfurt and Berlin. The third runs southwest and reaches the frontier of Silesia east of Czenstachowa, whence it continues to Breslau. For convenience these three railways may be called, respectively, the Danzig, Frankfurt, and Breslau lines.

The only other railroad of immediate interest is that which leaves the Breslau line at Skierniewice, fifty miles west of Warsaw, runs

north, crossing the Frankfurt line at Lowicz and reaching the frontier at Thorn. This will be described as the Thorn line.

Now, at the points where all these four lines touch the German frontier,—that is, at the rim of the Polish wheel,—they meet German railroads which follow the frontier all the way, and for the purposes of our figure may be likened to the tire of the Polish wheel. These are the strategic railroads, so much mentioned in recent despatches, the most important of which extends all the way from the Danzig to the Breslau railroad.

The military advantage of these railroads of the Germans is this: Russian armies advancing to invade Silesia, Posen, or East



Prussia must move along the lines which have been described as the spokes of the Polish wheel. Once they are well committed to such an invasion a Russian army, for example, moving along the Breslau line can only communicate and send reinforcements to another army moving along the Dantzig line, by sending troops all the way back to Warsaw, that is, up one spoke and down another. But the Germans, possessing the strategic lines along the rim of the wheel, could send their troops directly from Czenstachowa to Mława. Again, while the Russians would have to use the railroads needed to supply the armies in the field for such a concentration, the Germans would be able to use lines parallel, not perpendicular, to their front, and not used in supplying their troops actually in the field.

A glance at the map of German territories just inside the frontier from Poland will show that the region is a perfect network of railroads, thus affording many lines by which to move troops to the front as well as parallel to the front, while Russian Poland, save for the lines mentioned, is practically without railways, and these had been partially destroyed in November.

Thanks to these railways, then, the Germans possessed at the outset of the December campaign a tremendous advantage. Having much smaller armies to use, they were still able, by moving them rapidly from one point to another along the rim to maintain a superiority of numbers at the decisive point for a considerable period of time, while the Russians were endeavoring, with inferior communications, to meet a German attack. Here is the key of the December struggle.

#### IV. GERMAN STRATEGY

To describe the German strategy in the Polish campaign it is necessary to look back for a moment to the situation of November 20, the date at which I closed my review of the operations for November. At that date, it will be recalled, the German retreat from Warsaw had reached the Silesian and East Prussian frontiers and Russian troops had for the first time crossed the frontier of the Province of Posen. Contrary to the general expectation, the Germans had not made a stand at the Warta River, and for the first time in the war Poland was practically free of German invaders.

In their retreat from Warsaw the Germans had moved along the Frankfurt railroad, reached the frontier at Kalisz and were

apparently standing there. The main Russian army pursuing had reached the Warta, and at points passed it, moving toward Kalisz. The German left, much less considerable than the center at Kalisz, had retreated along the Thorn line and was now before Thorn. The German right had come back along the Breslau line to Czenstachwa, followed by a Russian army. At Czenstachwa it had united with the Austrian army, which had retreated from Ivangorod in Poland and was now defending the approach to Cracow on the north.

Meantime a Russian army in Galicia had swept westward to the very gates of Cracow, which was now under fire, threatened with complete investment and isolation from Vienna and Berlin. Russian cavalry was across the Carpathians. In the North the Russian army which in September had approached Königsburg in October retreated to the Niemen, and in November resumed the advance, was well within the East Prussian frontier, had taken Gumbinnen and was approaching Insterburg. Finally a third army was entering East Prussia by the Dantzig railroad at Mława.

In this situation the German General Staff found itself lacking in the necessary numbers to meet all attacks and defeat them at the same time. Russia now had manifest superiority in numbers in all fields. But if Germany could draw upon all her armies and make use of her superior transportation facilities, it was still possible for her to put in an army at a selected point which would be larger than the Russian and might make possible a repetition of the victory of Tannenberg in September, when the troops withdrawn from the West had been rushed into East Prussia and had destroyed a Russian army.

Even if no Russian disaster followed, it was fair to suppose that such a drive directed at the center might at the least compel the Russians to halt in their offensive in Galicia and East Prussia and despatch troops to the danger point to parry the thrust. Precisely this had been accomplished by the October advance to Warsaw. This would be a considerable profit for Germany, now facing the possibility of an invasion from the east, for Austria, Galicia, and Bukovina, all but lost, was weakening visibly. But if such a drive failed to achieve a Russian rout, did not avail to end the Russian attacks north and south, then it was perfectly clear to the world, to the German General Staff first, that no temporary occupation of Polish territory or cities would be of value. This detail should be



THE VISTULA AT CRACOW  
(The Russians made many attempts to cross here)



RAILROAD BRIDGE ON THE KALISZ LINE  
(Both German and Russian tracks crossed this bridge,—see map on page 51)



remembered always in considering this operation.

Such being the view of the German General Staff and such its necessities, about November 15, and from the front crossed by the Thorn railroad the Germans began a drive toward Warsaw and along the Thorn railway. The troops in this force had been drawn from all the German armies in the East, carried to Thorn by the strategic lines along the frontier, the rim of the Polish wheel. In front of them as they entered Poland was only a small Russian force, wholly incapable of meeting the coming storm, the main Russian armies being still at the ends of the Frankfurt and Breslau railway spokes.

### V. ANOTHER TANNENBERG?

Look again at the map and it will be seen that the Thorn line as it comes east toward Warsaw crosses the Frankfurt line at Lowicz and meets the Breslau line at Skierniewiez. This latter town is half way between Warsaw and Lodz, the most considerable town in western Poland, and directly in the rear of the main Russian army in Poland, which had followed the Germans west along the Frankfurt line toward Kalisz.

Now, if the Germans coming east could take both Lowicz and Skierniewiez before the main Russian army could concentrate in front of it, they would be between the Russians and Warsaw, would hold the railway lines by which the Russians were supplied. If they were able to continue their advance they might get directly in the Russian rear.

If a second German army were sent east from Kalisz along the Frankfurt line following the retreating Russians, it might attack them in front while the Thorn army was in their rear. Were the maximum profit realized from this operation, the main Russian army might be driven in on Lodz and surrounded, its communications cut off, and in the end it might be destroyed either by battle or by lack of food and ammunition. Here was one of the most daring and splendid conceptions in the whole strategy of the Great War.

At the outset the advance of the Thorn army was completely successful. The first Russian force encountered was badly whipped at Wlaskwask, on the Vistula, east of Thorn. A second stand at Plock, on the river, was beaten down and the Thorn army, still following the Thorn railway, now turned south and swept rapidly on to Lowicz, took this town and a few days later seized

Skierniewiez, thus cutting both railway lines from Warsaw to Lodz. The main Russian army was now completely cut off from Warsaw.

Crossing the railways and continuing south, the Thorn army presently stood squarely in the rear of the main Russian army, which, by this time, had come back upon Lodz. Meantime the German forces about Kalisz had moved rapidly after the retreating Russians and were west and southwest of Lodz. At this point the Russians were almost surrounded, and presently lost control of the only railway that had remained open to them, that from Lodz to Ivangorod on the Vistula south of Warsaw.

Looking back over the reports of the late November battles, it will be recalled that at one point the official statements in Berlin forecast the approach of a great victory and the removal of the Russian menace. Von Hindenburg was made a Field Marshal for his success. This happened at the moment when the main Russian army was standing at Lodz, almost surrounded and apparently threatened with destruction. This was the first phase of what has been called the Battle of Lodz.

### VI. A SECOND SEDAN?

Contrary to every natural expectation, the Russians did not at this critical moment stay their hand either in Galicia or in East Prussia. Instead, gathering up all their garrisons from Warsaw, from Novo Georgiewsk, from Ivangorod, calling out all available reserves, drawing regiments from the army which was at Mlawa, on the Dantzig railroad, they rushed them west along the Frankfurt and Breslau railroads, retook Lowicz and Skierniewiez and came down in the rear of the German army which had come from Thorn.

What followed was the most indescribable and inextricable confusion. A Russian army, drawn up about Lodz, surrounded in a semicircle by two German armies, one to the west, the other to the north, was relieved by a Russian army which came south in the rear of that German army, north of Lodz, cut it off from all connection with the German army to the west, broke its railroad communication with Thorn, with Germany, and threatened a second Sedan.

It was at this stage that Petrograd, long silent while Berlin forecast victory, suddenly took up the cry, and English war correspondents at the Russian capital forecast a decisive German defeat. Patently the Germans were at this moment nearer disaster than at any



THE BRAINS OF GERMANY'S EASTERN CAMPAIGN: FIELD MARSHAL PRINCE VON HINDENBURG AND HIS STAFF  
(Photographed on the steps of military headquarters in an unnamed town in East Prussia)



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A GERMAN ENCAMPMENT NEAR THE RUSSIAN FRONTIER



moment since the war began. Their escape will always remain a memorable military operation. All that is known of it as yet comes through Russian official statements in which the German exertions are described as "unbelievable."

What seems to have happened was that the Thorn army east and south of Lodz turned west and north, cut its way through the army which had enveloped it, not with artillery fire, but with the bayonet, broke down the barrier by sheer weight and desperation, finally opened a pathway, but at a cost in lives surpassing anything in the history of this terrible war. When the disaster seemed nearest, the Germans had at last to call upon their western armies for help, and several army corps hastily gathered up in Belgium and France were flung east in time to cover the retreat of the fragments of the Thorn army, after it had won clear.

When at last the tangle was cleared, it became plain that from Galicia to the Vistula, west of Warsaw, two battle lines faced each other, substantially intact, continuous, the Russian line bulging to the west at Lodz. After a few days the Russians evacuated Lodz and moved east, taking up its position in front of the Breslau railroad, holding Lowicz and Czenstochwa and resting on the Vistula east of Plock.

## VII. DEADLOCK IN THE EAST

The capture of Lodz by the Germans provoked temporary German enthusiasm, promptly checked by German military authorities, who pointed out that the capture of the city was of little real value unless the Russian army which had occupied it could be decisively defeated. A similar explanation was presently made by Petrograd. The truth, of course, was that both Germany and Russia had failed to destroy an opponent who had been within two steps of ruin, but the German disappointment was the greater, because it was vitally necessary for Germany to relieve Galicia and Poland by her offensive, and she had so far failed. To capture Lodz was an empty triumph. Lodz had been in her hands from August to November. What was of moment was the fact that in her front the Russian army was still unbroken and her losses in a daring but abortive offensive had been colossal, had compelled her to weaken her western armies and thus abandon the offensive in Flanders.

By December 15 the German and Russian armies which had fought the Battle of Lodz

stood squarely face to face, but the Russians were rooted behind entrenchments recalling the German position at the Aisne. In the center and for the moment at least Russia had brought the German drive to a halt because her enormous superiority of numbers had enabled her to bring up reserves from her rear at the critical moment.

The whole purpose of German strategy had been to relieve Cracow. Look again at Cracow and it will be seen that it stands almost at the southern frontier of German Silesia. Were it in Russian hands the Czar could send his armies down the Valley of the Oder on either bank in the rear of the German armies in Poland and all industrial Silesia as far north as Breslau would be open to invasion. Austrian armies, too, would be crowded back beyond the High Tatra Mountains into Hungary and into Moravia, that is, away from the Germans.

In September, after Lemberg, Russian armies had passed the San and reached Tarnow on the Donajec, fifty miles from Cracow. Here the invasion of Russian Poland by von Hindenburg compelled them to halt. But now, by the first of December, new armies were across the San, the Donajec, were rolling on to Cracow from the east, while a second Russian army was coming south along the Breslau spoke of the Polish railroad system and was closing in on Cracow from the north and east. Only on the west was Cracow approachable for the Austro-German reinforcements now feverishly hurried to the imperiled town.

The Austrian situation was further disturbed by a new raid of Cossacks sent into Hungary, a move which resulted in an immediate appeal from Budapest to Berlin for protection, which Vienna could no longer give. In response Germany now sent cavalry regiments from the Western front. Austria, on her part, began to recall from Serbia troops which had just won a considerable victory and seemed at the point of crushing King Peter's little state. With these troops the generals of the two Kaisers undertook a desperate counter-offensive, the cavalry sweeping the Cossacks out of Hungary, the infantry trying to move through the Carpathian passes along the eastern foothills of the Carpathians and turn the southern flank of the Russian battle line, now extending from East Prussia to the Carpathians.

At the same time the German center before Lowicz and north of Lodz resumed terrific frontal attacks, striving again to cut the Breslau and Frankfurt railways, which had

been temporarily held during the Battle of Lodz. Finally from Mława a new offensive was driven east along the Dantzig railroad at Warsaw. Thus in front and on both flanks the Russians were compelled to face a new attack, while in East Prussia the two armies faced each other, waiting the decision to the south. By December 17, however, Petrograd claimed and Berlin conceded the decisive repulse of the offensive from Mława.

This was the third phase of the battle in the East, but it is plain that it had now become, not a question of strategy, but strength. In this situation there was reported a steady shifting of German troops from West to East, a patent diminution of German strength in Belgium and France, the recrudescence of French offensive in Alsace. Meantime in all the opening moves of this new operation the Russian lines held firm. By December 17 Petrograd reported that on all fronts the German attacks had been checked save along the Vistula between Łowicz and Iława where a German advance was admitted and emphasized the fact that the advance on Cracow continued. Berlin reflected a check by renewed warning to Germans not to expect too much in the East, while affirming confidence in ultimate victory and promising new progress for the Łowicz-Warsaw drive which was steadily developing, and by December 17 was described as a great triumph and the prelude to a decisive victory.

By this time, too, it was clear that the Napoleonic stroke of von Hindenburg's from Thorn had utterly failed; the second effort by the flanks in East Prussia and Galicia had met with a check, which might prove temporary. So far the German campaign had failed disastrously. At the price of the surrender of the offensive in the West, Germany had not relieved Cracow or cleared East Prussia. She had merely occupied some miles of Polish territory twice already swept by contending armies. So far Russia had scored notably, perilously, viewed from the Kaiser's position, and German failure coincided with the sudden illness of the German Emperor, who had personally viewed the operations in the East during the crisis of the second phase.

### VIII. IN THE WEST

Measured by actual operations, the first half of December was in the West the least significant period of the whole war. In the last days of November the Battle of Flanders came to an end, German effort slowly subsided, Ypres, the Yser Canal, the line from the Lys to the sea north of Dunkirk remained

in the hands of the Allies, and only occasional attacks served to indicate that German spirit remained unsubdued. December 10 had been the day fixed by the Kaiser for the entrance into Calais, and on December 10 the Germans were no nearer this port than on October 10.

As the end of a period the close of the Battle of Flanders might well be compared with that of the Marne. At the latter the sweep to Paris was halted, turned back; a limit, and a permanent limit, to German advance in France was set. In Flanders six weeks of fighting had, so far as it was possible to judge, with equal definitiveness beaten down the advance to the Channel. Ostend the Kaiser's troops still held. At the little port of Zeebrugge they strove under the fire of British warships to make a base for German submarines, but Calais, Boulogne, Dunkirk,—these had escaped German occupation and the approach to Britain was still in hostile hands.

Yet if there were no considerable military events in the West, the fact that the Allies in this field again began to take the offensive was wholly noteworthy. With the fall of Antwerp on October 9 the German advance toward the coast had brought all Allied effort to a standstill. For six weeks it had required the utmost effort, absorbed the last reserve of the Allies, to hold back the masses of Germans driven south under the eyes of the Kaiser himself. Along the Aisne, north of Verdun, on the Heights of the Meuse, French effort to get up, move forward, relieve pressure, had failed.

But with the coming of December the German situation worsened visibly. Von Hindenburg's necessities in the East drew several army corps from France and Belgium. New British troops sent to Flanders relieved French troops, which presently became available for use on the Alsatian frontier. Heavy artillery brought up by the Allies at last answered the German. All along the line from Switzerland to the North Sea there began to be apparent new activity on the part of the Allies, growing inability on the part of the Germans to retain the offensive.

Thus, early in the month, French bulletins began to record progress along the entire battle line. It was a slight progress always, the taking of a trench, the final capture of some house which had been fought for for two months, the destruction of a battery which had long dominated a corner of the battlefield. There was in this time no conspicuous advance save in a corner of Alsace.





MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE WAR IN WESTERN EUROPE DURING DECEMBER

Everywhere the impression was of a straining against the German lines along their whole length, the exerting of pressure which did not break through, but did retain in these lines the troops which would have made decisive victory in Poland possible.

It was plain that if the Germans could crush Russia decisively and bring back German corps from the East, they might again take the offensive in the West, but it was equally unmistakable that if the Russian danger continued to call for the deflection of corps from West to East, the time might soon arrive when it would be necessary to draw back from France and shorten the lines or risk such a disaster as overtook Lee before Richmond, when at last his lines about Pe-

tersburg had been stretched to the breaking point toward Five Forks.

## IX. A SECOND INVASION OF ALSACE

While the deadlock persisted from the Vosges to the North Sea, the French official statements presently announced the capture of various small towns in Upper Alsace, General Joffre visited the conquered region and assured the inhabitants that the French had come back to stay, and other signs pointed to a speedy resumption of activities on a portion of the battle line forgotten since late August.

The first invasion of Alsace in August, after various checks, carried the French into Muelhausen and Altkirch. Flowing east over all the passes of the Vosges from Saint



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THE RUINS OF ARRAS UNDER SNOW



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YPRES—ST. MARTIN'S CATHEDRAL WRECKED AND THE FAMOUS "CLOTH HALL" IN FLAMES



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THE MAIN STREET OF RAMSCAPELLE, BELGIUM, AFTER HEAVY BOMBARDMENT



Dié to Belfort, the early invasion had taken root on the Alsatian Plain only to retreat when the German advance to the Marne compelled the concentration of all available French troops in the West.

In their turn the Germans had come west, crossed the same passes, occupied Saint Dié, approached Epinal, menaced Belfort. Now early in December the tide turned, and one by one the passes were again taken by French troops. The most considerable advance was down the valley of the Thur, the first valley north of Belfort. Thann, the town at the foot of the valley, was taken, the railroad toward Muelhausen occupied. At the same time another force moving northeast from Belfort along the foot of the mountains joined hands with the first and made a front facing Muelhausen and less than ten miles from it.

To the north the passes of the Schlucht and the Bonhomme were taken, and the French began to move down these valleys toward Colmar, the capital of Upper Alsace. Already winter had set in on the mountains, and the fighting was done in snowdrifts, the troops exposed to storm and cold, the suffering of the wounded recalling something of the famous incidents of the retreat from Moscow. By mid-December the French were masters of the whole Vosges region south of the Bruche valley, which leads down to Strassburg, and had been won and lost in August, but they had not yet made any substantial progress in the plain between the foothills and the Rhine.

The purpose of this campaign was twofold. In the first place, it made a new draft upon German resources in men and artillery; in the second, the moral effect in Germany of the knowledge that her own territory was being occupied on both fronts was bound to be considerable. In France, too, where the presence of the Germans in Champagne was exciting impatience, the news of the return of the French to the "Lost Provinces" was sure to have a useful influence, to be received as a promise for the future, an assurance that Alsace-Lorraine would be again French when at last peace came.

Viewed as a whole in Alsace, in Champagne, in Flanders, it was clear in mid-December that the strategy of Joffre was fairly comparable with that of Grant before Richmond. By steady pressure, by extension of the battle lines, by constant action, the French commander was seeking to compel his opponents, now inferior in numbers, to retreat, shorten their lines by withdrawing

from the Aisne to the Meuse, from France to Belgium, or run the risk of disaster as the superior numbers of the Allies continued to push against the whole German line, weakened by reinforcements sent to Russia. In this strategy there was little of brilliance, of spectacular circumstances, there was no suggestion of the fury with which the Germans had attacked in Flanders, in Poland, but there was an ever-growing sense of mastery, control, a promise of ultimate victory won by numbers and resources, not by dash or dazzling military skill.

## X. SEA POWER

In the second week in December the whole British people rejoiced over the most considerable naval victory of their nation since the Napoleonic era. Off the Falkland Islands a British fleet had at last accounted for the German warships which in November had sunk Cradock's squadron in the Pacific. Of five vessels four, the *Gneisenau*, the *Scharnhorst*, the *Leipzig* and the *Nürnberg* went down in the action; only the *Dresden* escaped for the moment at least.

By this victory German sea power abroad was reduced to the *Dresden*, the *Karlsruhe* and one or two converted merchant steamers. Save in the home waters German naval power was now extinguished, German colonies at the mercy of the enemy as Napoleon's had been. Kiao-chau and Togoland, New Guinea and the islands of the Pacific were lost, the Kamerun attacked, Southwest Africa certain to be invaded when the Boer revolt had been put down. The Kaiser had said, "Our future is on the sea," and the British answer to the challenge was now had.

In the previous months of the war there had been an evident tendency to exaggerate the success of the German Navy. Her submarines had sunk the *Cressy*, the *Aboukir*, the *Hogue*. Recently the *Audacious*, one of the newest of British superdreadnoughts, had gone down off the Irish coast; the *Bulwark* had blown up at Sheerness in the Thames. A long series of minor losses had irritated a public accustomed to the idea that British sea power was supreme and above challenge. For all this the victory of Sturdee off the Falkland Islands was sweet solace.

Yet such losses as the British had suffered from attack, from the activity of the *Emden* in the Indian Ocean, of the *Karlsruhe* in the Atlantic, were but insignificant when compared with the magnitude of the service of British sea power. Almost in a day the Ger-



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REAR-ADMIRAL VON SPEE

(German Commander who perished with his flagship, the *Scharnhorst*, in the battle with Sturdee)

© American Press Association, New York

VICE-ADMIRAL STURDEE

(Victor in the naval battle with the Germans near the Falkland Islands last month)

Photo by Bain

REAR-ADMIRAL CRADOCK

(Who went down with the *Good Hope* in the fight off the coast of Chili on November 1)



THE BATTLE CRUISER "INVINCIBLE," ADMIRAL STURDEE'S FLAGSHIP



A VIEW OF SCARBOROUGH, ENGLAND, BOMBARDED BY GERMAN SHIPS LAST MONTH



man flag had disappeared from the seas. Hundreds of thousands of tons of shipping had been captured; other ships lay helpless in neutral ports. Hamburg and Bremen had become as deserted as Savannah and Charleston when the Civil War was in progress.

Thanks to the control of the sea by British and French fleets, France had been able to bring her African troops to the battle line, England, her colonials and Indians. A Turkish attack upon Egypt was met by a concentration of Australian, Indian and territorial troops, by warships in the Suez Canal. Austria, like Germany, was cut off from the outside world. Through neutral states some supplies still flowed into Germany, but ever in decreasing quantities. German industry more and more suffered from the blockade, German exports fell to the vanishing point.

On the other hand, France and England were open to the commerce of the world. Their purchases in America were promptly transported to Europe. Supplies, clothing, automobiles, arms, ammunition,—all these things in vast quantities they purchased, and thus bridged the gap between German preparedness and their own. By land, by sea, the net about Germany and her Austrian ally steadily, remorselessly tightened. The isolation of the two nations increased. The neutrals, acting under pressure, ventured less and less to risk British menace by lending their ships to serve Germany's need.

As for the German high-seas fleet, it had lain idly in the war ports. The disparity between it and the British fleets was hopeless. Such losses as the Germans inflicted were of little real consequence. Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, emphasized this in a speech in which he stated that England could lose a dreadnought a month for many months without losing any advantage now possessed over Germany. British naval authorities paid full tribute to the skill with which German captains had handled their ships. Cradock's disaster, the long life of the *Emden*,—these were proofs of German seamanship. But all this was of little consequence before the numbers of the British. The few ships of Germany abroad when the war came were steadily swept from sea to sea, overtaken, and sunk; and the German flag became a memory in ports where it had a few months before rivaled the British.

As if to avenge the disaster of the Falklands and warn the too-confident British public that the German Navy was still to be reckoned with, on December 16 a fleet of battle cruisers, slipping through the fog, sud-

denly appeared off the Yorkshire coast and, near the headland where Paul Jones won the first of the great American naval triumphs in foreign waters, bombarded British towns.

Scarborough, Hartlepool, Whitby, received their share of shells. For the first time in centuries English men, women, and children fled from their own shore to escape the shells of a hostile fleet and the warships of William II succeeded, as those of Napoleon had failed, in bringing home to the British people the meaning of war.

The whole incident was trivial from a military point of view. Less than a hundred people were killed, thrice as many injured, some thousands of dollars worth of property destroyed, for a half-hour three British cities suffered as those of Belgium had; then the ships again disappeared in the fog. But the moral effect upon England could not be exaggerated. Not fear but rage, an almost humorous indignation, at this German impudence in venturing to bombard British shores,—this was the conspicuous detail.

But beneath it was the growing evidence of new determination, new realization of the fact that the nation was at war. By this attack the Kaiser had proved Kitchener's best recruiting agent. By all the English press it was recognized that this drive might be the prelude to more attacks, to an extension of the plan to carry destruction to fortified and unfortified coast cities, the beginning of active naval operations which might presently lead to "The Day," when a new Carthage and a new Rome would fight for the supremacy of the sea.

For Germany this little triumph of seamanship and courage was a welcome interruption to the long month of deadlock on land and defeat on the seas. It was hailed as a national victory, but its consequences on December 18 seemed insignificant. Germany had proved that she could reach British shores and bombard defenseless towns,—this and no more. All England, now roused, waited, watched, as of old, for the coming of invaders from the North Sea.

## XI. SERBIA TRIUMPHANT

Once more it was reserved for Serbia, prime cause of all the terrible conflict, to give to Europe a great surprise, the fourth in three brief years, and to win the most conspicuous and shining triumph of the month on land. In 1913, at the outset of the First Balkan War, when, with the memory of Slivnitza in Europe's mind, Servian defeat



BELGRADE, THE SERBIAN CAPITAL, FROM WHICH THE AUSTRIANS WERE EXPELLED LAST MONTH  
(The Danube River and the Austrian frontier in the background)



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AUSTRIAN PRISONERS OF WAR, BROUGHT BY THE SERBIANS TO NISH, ARE ALLOWED UNUSUAL LIBERTIES  
(They are permitted to enter the town for the purpose of buying provisions and are here seen purchasing cooking utensils at one of the most popular stores in Nish)



by the Turks was prophesied by those most hopeful of Bulgarian victory, it was the Serb and not the Bulgar who proved irresistible, invincible, won back Old Serbia at Kumanovo, Macedonia at Monastir, and captured the Turkish commander at Adrianople.

A few months later, when Austria had precipitated the Second Balkan War to destroy King Peter's nation, it was the Serb and not the Bulgar who again prevailed and the Battle of Bregalnitz as completely shattered the legend of Bulgarian invincibility as the reverse of Mars-la-Tour had wrecked that of France. The victims of a breach of faith, attacked by might and without warning, without declaration of war, the Serbs rallied, took the offensive, sent the Bulgars in rout back over the Rhodopians and restored to Serbia the southern half of the empire of the great Dushan.

Finally, in the opening month of the Great War, when the fortune of the Allies in the West was most desperate, it was the victory of the Serb at the Jedar which opened the more prosperous period that culminated at the Marne. At the Jedar four Austrian army corps had been routed, Austrian prestige in the Balkans shattered, the first Slav triumph won in that long series which by December was to bring Austria to the lowest ebb in her history since the Hungarian Revolution.

On December 1 Serbia was again in the presence of grave peril. The October drive of the Germans had released several army corps of Austrians in Galicia and Poland, and these came south to complete the work of destroying the troops of King Peter, who had for months defended their frontiers. Before this overwhelming force the Serbs had retreated. All the corner of Serbia between the Save and the Drina was lost. Coming east from Bosnia the Austrian right approached Belgrade, which for four months had defied daily bombardment, the center reached Valievo, the left penetrated to Uchitz, on the Servian Morava. Presently Belgrade fell, a birthday present to the aged Francis Joseph, the only real conquest of his army in the whole struggle.

In the first week in December the fate of Serbia seemed sealed. A second Belgium, another little state destroyed in the contest between the great, seemed assured. Austrian armies appeared certain to reach Nish, the temporary Servian capital, to open the Orient Railway to the Bulgarian frontier and persuade Bulgaria, still smarting from her defeat by Serbia, to cast her lot with the

two Kaisers and open her territory for the passage of the Turks to the battle lines of western Europe.

In the moment of greatest peril, however, Serbia was saved, partly by her own courage, by her own determination, without which destruction was inescapable, partly by the new advance of the Russians. While the Austrian troops were still before Belgrade Cossacks once more crossed the Carpathians, swept down into the Hungarian Plain, panic reached the very gates of Budapest, and three army corps were hurriedly recalled from Serbia to defend Hungary. Once more at the critical moment the Austro-German alliance had to surrender triumph in one field because of deadly peril in another.

No sooner had the three corps been withdrawn than the Serbs again took the offensive. Old King Peter, now stricken in years and infirmities, but retaining something of the fire that earned him his cross of the Legion of Honor as a soldier of France in 1870, rode in front of his troops, mounted on a white charger, and harangued them as their chiefs of remoter centuries were accustomed to do. Then followed the most complete of Austrian disasters. In a few days the whole force had fled across the frontiers, leaving thousands of prisoners, cannon, material, behind them. Belgrade was retaken, by December 15 Serbia was free of Austrians, saved for the time, perhaps for all time.

But the Austrian troops thus transferred to the Hungarian frontier presently began to flow over the Carpathians; for a second time Russian invaders were cleared out of Hungary, out of the Carpathian passes, and in the third week of December, when these lines are written, there is at last a measure of evidence to point to the possible drawing back of the Russian troops from before Cracow and in western Galicia, although Russian reports still insist that the fate of Cracow will be settled by a battle in its vicinity on a field selected by the Russian general staff.

What was most noteworthy in the days following the Servian victory was the first considerable evidence throughout Austria, in Vienna, in Prague, in Budapest, of discontent, weariness, desire for peace. However unbending German courage and determination still were, there was no longer any mistaking the declining spirit in the Hapsburg Empire, no mistaking the wrath and dejection which followed the triumph of that despised state, whose ambitions had led Austria to plunge the Continent in a world war.

# LEADERS OF RUSSIA'S ARMIES

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON

[This article, not only sketches the careers of Russia's great military commanders, but sets forth succinctly (particularly on pages 67-68), some of the outstanding features in the reorganization of the army following the close of the Russo-Japanese War.—THE EDITOR.]

THE high and wholly unexpected efficiency of the Russian armies is one of the revelations of the war, as the splendid regeneration of France is another. But the new temper and power of the Russian army is only one of the many fruits of the new birth through which Russia passed, with throes of revolution, in the chaotic years after the war with Japan. From that new birth Russia came forth a constitutional monarchy, extending the fullest religious toleration to all the many-colored faiths and creeds within her dominions, and full of new energy and hope and power in every region of her national life. The renewal of her armies is only one among many signs of a deep national renewal, which bears immense promise for the time to come.



FOOT COSSACK

the Emperor Paul. Nicholas I had four sons: Alexander II, who succeeded him; Constantine, father of Constantine Constantinovitch, an imperial poet of distinction, known to Russian society as "Tin 'Tinitch," and of Olga Constantinovna, who married George, King of the Hellenes, and whose son, Constantine, now rules in Athens; Nicolai, father of the present commander-in-chief; and Michael, long Viceroy of the Caucasus.

When the Russo-Turkish war broke out in the spring of 1877, the Czar Alexander II gave to two of his brothers the chief commands in Europe and Asia; it is said that the remaining brother, Constantine Nicolaievitch, commemorated the fact in a verse which may be translated thus:

Through the Higher Powers,  
What a fate is ours:  
On the Danube Nick,  
In Caucasia Mick!

a verse which hardly forecasts the poetic eminence of his son.

With Nicolai Nicolaievitch the elder, his son Nicolai Nicolaievitch the younger,—the present commander-in-chief,—then a young man of twenty-one, went down to the Danube and the Balkans, serving with distinction in the campaign of Plevna, Lovcha, and the Shipka pass, and receiving the coveted decoration of the Cross of St. George "for valor," under fire. During the intervening years, the younger Nicolai Nicolaievitch has been closely identified with the Russian army and the science of war. He has made himself familiar with the armies of other European nations, and in particular France, on several occasions being present at the annual maneuvers of the French army. At the outbreak of the war he was commander of the St. Petersburg military district, having under him a Corps of Guards and the First and Eighteenth army corps, from 120,000 to 150,000 men. It is sufficiently evident that he is something more than a titular commander, that he is a soldier of the first rank, an able and far-seeing strategist, entirely ca-

## THE GRAND DUKE NICOLAI NICOLAIEVITCH

The regeneration of the Russian army began at the top, in the Czar's choice of the Minister of War. In that choice the Grand Duke who now commands the armies of Russia had, without doubt, an influential voice, and the man chosen has been for many years his personal friend. The Grand Duke Nicolai Nicolaievitch may almost be said to have inherited the supreme command of the Russian army, for his father, the Grand Duke Nicolai Nicolaievitch the elder, was commander-in-chief of the Russian forces in European Turkey in the war of 1877. This elder Nicolai Nicolaievitch was the son of the Emperor Nicholas I, who was the younger brother of Alexander I, both being sons of



pable of handling the enormous masses of the Russian army, and, what is not less important, able to choose the right men to command the divisions of that army,—which are, indeed, great independent armies rather than divisions.

The present Nicolai Nicolaievitch inherits the great height and extraordinary physical strength of the Romanoffs, measuring some six feet five inches. In family groups he always towers above the others. Alexander I was an exceptionally tall man; so was his brother, Nicholas I; so were Alexander II and Alexander III, the son and grandson of Nicholas I. And both Nicolai Nicolaievitch the elder and his brother Michael,—the Nick and Mick of the poem,—were men of splendid physique, tall, well built, muscular. Nicholas I and his four sons looked like an assemblage of Norse gods in uniform. So the present commander-in-chief comes honestly by his eminent qualities.

The association of three of the chief leaders of the Russian army in the present war began in the eighties of last century, when the elder Nicolai Nicolaievitch chose as head of the famous Officers' Cavalry School at St. Petersburg the then almost unknown Colonel Vladimir Sukhomlinoff, who in turn took as his adjutant Captain Alexei Brusiloff, of the Tver Dragoons, then stationed at the King's Wells, in the Caucasus mountains, south of Tiflis. The Grand Duke Nicolai Nicolaievitch, the elder, had long made a hobby of this cavalry school, as also of the breeding and training of

cavalry horses, and he and his sons gave to its development,—and its festivities,—a great deal of their personal attention.

#### SUKHOMLINOFF: MINISTER OF WAR

As head of the Officers' Cavalry School, Colonel Vladimir Sukhomlinoff gained a double success: he was very popular with all the officers who came there for two years' training, from regiments scattered over the eight million square miles of the Russian Empire; and at the same time he impressed them with the sense of his efficiency, his power to give them the best training in the best way. Also, he always conveyed the feeling of great reserved force. Tall, deep-chested, fair, inexhaustibly good-humored, he did much without ever appearing to exert himself. He smiled, said little, and did not seem really to let himself out. He was forceful, far-seeing, methodical, and did things rapidly and incisively, in such fashion that they did not need to be done over again. He inspired confidence. The authorities and the men who worked under him felt that they could rely on Sukhomlinoff, resting on his effectiveness, his moral and intellectual force.

When the war with Japan broke out, at the close of 1904, a large part of Russia's European army was sent east. But the most effective forces remained at home, guarding the western frontier, lest Russia's European neighbors might succumb to temptation. Among the guardians of the western frontier were General Sukhomlinoff, General Brusiloff, and the Grand Duke Nicolai Nicolaievitch himself. So it befell that, in the period



GRAND DUKE NICOLAI NICOLAIEVITCH  
(Commander-in-chief of the Russian armies)

immediately succeeding the war, General Sukhomlinoff held various military commands in the regions about Poland and the Prussian frontier, yearly taking part in the great maneuvers over the whole region that is now the seat of war. The value of this practical training, for his present task, it is impossible to overestimate.

When the Japanese war broke out, Kuropatkin was at the War Office. After the first defeats he himself went to the front, and General Sakharoff became War Minister. The breakdown of the Russian armies in Manchuria, in spite of Kuropatkin's dogged efforts, showed how defective the military system was, and the Emperor cast about for some one to put things to rights. He tried General Rudiger, but found, to use the Russian phrase, that that good officer "would not have discovered gunpowder." Then the lot fell on Sukhomlinoff, who came to the War Office in 1909, and at last it became evident that Russia had got hold of the right man. And at last the big, smiling, deep-chested man took his coat off and turned in with all his force. With the aid of the present commander-in-chief on the one side, and of effective parliamentary committees of the Duma

on the other, he began to overhaul the whole military system, from the plumes of full generals to the shoes of the raw recruits.

The Japanese campaign had shown how incompetent the leaders of Russia's armies were. Sukhomlinoff began with the generals, setting himself to catch flies both with honey and with vinegar. First, the honey: he induced the elderly men, who were not specially competent, to retire, by increasing the retiring allowances and pensions. Then the vinegar: with the aid of the new constitutional forces, he organized effective committees on promotion, who followed up the do-

ings of commanding officers, especially at the annual maneuvers, watching how they actually handled their men in the field, under conditions as like as possible to actual warfare. In this way he got the really effective men into the responsible positions, and put a premium on vigor, energy, and genius. It was once again the "career open to talents."

It had been noticed that many of the ablest men among the younger officers, after serving a certain time in the army, had resigned from the service and gone into civil employ, finding higher pay and larger opportunities in the rapidly growing industrial life of Russia. General Sukhomlinoff and his committees set themselves to remedy this by raising the officers' pay, building better quarters for them, and in all ways making the soldier's life more attractive, more of a career.

Having got hold of better men, he set himself to train them better. The old Academy of the General Staff, which, "before the war," had given a highly technical training to a select few, opened its doors wider. Its courses were made more practical, more modern. Instead of preparing his junior officers to "explain" to their men what should be done, he fitted them to "show" the men, by doing it themselves. The difference is great.



GENERAL VLADIMIR SUKHOMLINOFF  
(Russian Minister of War)

#### AEROPLANES OF RUSSIAN MAKE

Sukhomlinoff saw that a weak point in the Russian army was that too much of its equipment came from abroad: a vulnerable situation in war-time, as the present shows. So he set himself busily building up arms factories, cartridge factories, and so on, within the boundaries of Russia, and at the same time established a central laboratory where new mechanisms, explosives, inventions might be tried out.

He also organized,—and this gives us



the measure of his foresight,—a first-class school of military aviation, and set the best Russian mechanics at the development and manufacture of aeroplanes, which to-day take the place of cavalry as “the eyes of the army.” The result is that, for the last four or five years, Russia has been making her own aeroplanes and training a large staff of officers able to use them. Sukhomlinoff also developed an effective corps of army automobiles, for the rapid transport of men and supplies.

#### IMPROVEMENT IN ARMY EFFICIENCY

One of the cardinal defects in Russian army organization brought out by the Japanese war was the slowness of her mobilization. The whole system was hopelessly swathed in red tape. Sukhomlinoff cut the tape. He established a school of railroading for officers, where the special work of getting troops rapidly into trains and moving them quickly was practically worked out. At the same time he revolutionized the forces and methods which lie behind the mechanical problem. The result we saw in the first weeks of the war.

It has long been clear that the Russian private soldier is, in many things, the equal of any fighting man in the world,—if he is competently led. Sukhomlinoff, having seen to the leading, now turned his attention to the well-being of the men in the ranks. “Before the war” with Japan a Russian regiment had been something like an old monastic community, where every member worked at some industry or trade. The theory was that the army should be self-supporting and save the state as much as possible. Sukhomlinoff and those who worked with him introduced the revolutionary idea that the chief purpose of the army was not to save money, but to fight.

So Private Ivan Ivanovitch was relieved of many heterogeneous tasks and set to turning himself into a first-class fighting man. His physical and mental training were taken up in a new way and a new spirit. His comfort was seen to. New, well-ventilated, sanitary barracks were built for him. Better food was provided, including an added quarter pound of beef daily. And, what appealed to him even more, perhaps, his pay and his tobacco allowance were increased. All this cost money,—a great deal of money; and only the large prosperity of the nation, together with the hearty coöperation between War Office and Duma, made it possible to get this money and spend it on the army.

#### RIDDING THE ARMY OF GRAFT

One thing more: Since the dark backward and abysm of time army contracts have been one of the warmest nests of graft in nearly every country under the sun. There was plenty of graft in the Russian army, and everyone knew it. Minister Sukhomlinoff and his committees set themselves to study its methods and to hunt it down, with the result that many leaks were stopped, and a new scheme devised whereby the corps commander,—the general who has under him a large military station with forty or fifty thousand men,—is himself responsible for the purchase of stores, and is expected to get as much as possible direct from the producers, from the farmers, or the agricultural associations, instead of getting them through contractors and middlemen. In this way an immense saving has been made, and things have been tightened up all round.

With the backing of the Duma, Minister Sukhomlinoff has been able to spend about \$300,000,000 yearly on the Russian army, with results that have already passed into history. It is not for nothing that they call him “the Kitchener of Russia.”

#### GENERAL RENNENKAMPF

At the moment of writing it is not certain whether this may not be, if not an obituary, at least a valedictory address over the military career of General Rennenkampf, commander of the Russian army of the north. In any event, much may be said in his honor.

Paul Rennenkampf got his first training in the Caucasus, where the long struggle against the Moslem mountaineers had taught so many Russian soldiers the art of war. Then his fate carried him to the Far East, and, in the Chinese uprising of 1900, he put such fear into the Boxers that they called him the “Russian Tiger.” In the war with Japan he was one of the few Russian commanders who came home with a higher reputation than he took thither, and his admirers openly said the whole war might have gone differently if only Kuropatkin had given him a chance.

Rennenkampf was a cavalryman, and, when the Russian armies lay about Mukden, his place should have been on the right wing, in the plain. Instead of that, Kuropatkin sent him to the left wing, among the hills, where cavalry had no chance at all. But in the early spring of 1905, after Port Arthur fell, the death of General Mischenko, then in command of the cavalry on the right,

made an opening for Rennenkampf, who at last, during three weeks, was allowed full play with his mounted detachment. He has written a rather notable account of those three weeks' fighting, which makes every move vivid and real; but, for our purpose, even more interesting is his introduction, which, with the closing passages, give us an insight into the General's heart and hopes:

In the days of heavy thought and doubt (he writes, in the midst of the revolutionary chaos which followed the war), full of the discords and murk of life, I think of the simple Russian soldiers, the modest army-officers, as I saw them in the battles around Mukden. Vivid before my eyes rises the picture of companies and regiments melting away, the flower of the army sinking silently into the arms of death. And with the feeling of burning love for these men, there lives anew in my soul the hope, there arises once again the faith that the time of heavy trials and failures for our army will soon be over, and that once more, as in bygone days, the brave battle-cry may resound, the banner rustle in the breeze, the mighty, two-crowned eagle spread his wings; then with joy and confidence we shall hurry to the field of battle, to fight valiantly in the name of God and of the Czar. In the thought of this moment, one would live again, keeping one's strength for the coming dawn, taking part in the resurrection of Russia's renown from the dead.

There is genuine pathos in that, and in the closing words of the diary, in which General Rennenkampf expresses the passionate hope that "these griefs and sufferings will purify us, that they will raise us up to new deeds in the coming war, inspiring in us the firm determination to conquer or die without which no result in war is thinkable."

Rennenkampf has had his wish. He has lived to see the armies of Russia once more victorious, once more covered with glory. It is pathetic to think that some of the limitations of that victory and that glory seem to have sprung from his own failures. It is strange that, while Rennenkampf is the only one of the foremost Russian leaders who has seen active service under modern conditions, all the others appear to have done better than he. Perhaps he still thinks along the lines of 1905, failing to rec-



GENERAL PAUL RENNENKAMPF

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GENERAL RUTZSKY

ognize how completely war has been revolutionized.

### GENERAL BRUSILOFF

At the outbreak of the present war General Rennenkampf was stationed at Vilna, eighty or ninety miles by rail from the frontier of East Prussia. General Brusiloff was stationed at Vinnitza, about the same distance from the frontier of Galicia, on the railroad that runs through Lemberg,—now, as anciently, known as Lvoff,—and Cracow. When war was declared each had simply to get into the train and go ahead.

Which gives us the occasion to view the general disposition of the Russian troops at the end of last July. We generally get the impression that, in case of war with her western neighbors, Russia is at a tremendous disadvantage, because her troops are scattered up and down over her eight million square miles of territory. In reality only the independent Siberian and Caucasian armies are far off. The European army, which, in time of peace, contains twenty-seven army corps, or about a million to a million and a quarter men, is, for the most part, disposed in a half-moon with Petrograd at one tip and Odessa at the other; and the bulk of these troops are in or near Poland and the frontier provinces, with Warsaw as the center.

Vinnitza, therefore, was the natural start-



ing-point for the invasion of Austria, and General Sukhomlinoff had this clearly in view when he sent thither his old friend and former adjutant of Cavalry School days. And General Brusiloff as naturally thought along these lines in the training of his troops, the disposition of maneuvers, the equipment of his aeroplane corps.

At the end of July all was ready, as all had been ready, month after month, for a long time before. For the Russian army was firmly convinced that Austria was bent on war; or at least bent on pushing a provocative policy against Serbia, which would make war inevitable.

Russia was pledged, as she had been before the last war with Turkey, to uphold the little Slavonic kingdoms to the south, which her armies had called into being, and had protected ever since. Austria's annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina, in the days of the Young Turks, had made her policy perfectly clear, and the present war is but the inevitable outcome of that policy. Therefore, the Russian army was convinced that war must come, and every plan was prepared and matured in expectation of it.

This explains in part the extraordinary swiftness and brilliancy of Russia's advance into Galicia, under General Brusiloff and General Rutzsky,—an advance which has already added a territory of twenty thousand square miles to the dominions of the Czar, territory which was Russian in the days of King Vladimir of Kieff.

But this in no wise diminishes the glory and credit due to General Brusiloff, who is,

in some ways, the most remarkable of the Russian commanders. Below the average height, he is slim and spare; a splendid horseman, who can outride any man in his cavalry detachment; a keen and intuitive strategist, an excellent organizer, of splendid valor and brilliancy in the field, General Brusiloff is, like so many Russian soldiers, by nature a mystic, deeply religious, in thought a transcendentalist. For this very reason, perhaps, he is more, not less, practical, more, not less, determined in battle; for war, like all life, seems to him a spiritual activity, to be carried out, therefore, with the fiery energy of spirit and will.

Finely built, and always in perfect training, General Brusiloff is full of personal distinction. Among the group of generals who command the brigades and divisions of his army, one will easily pick him out as the leader. Like the



GENERAL BRUSILOFF

Grand Duke Nicolai Nicolaievitch, General Brusiloff has been an industrious student of the armies of other nations. He has more than once accompanied the Grand Duke to the great French maneuvers, and has had opportunities to compare them with the handling of the Kaiser Wilhelm's troops.

It is far too soon to cast up the values of the war, or to attempt to get an accurate view of the doings of one or another of the armies or their divisions; but one may confidently predict that when the whole story comes to be told General Brusiloff's name will be among those most highly honored.



Photograph by Brown Brothers

A SERVIAN BATTLEFIELD  
(Notice the troops in the distance)

# THE PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE WAR

BY CHARLES FITZHUGH TALMAN

**M**ILITARY geography is an application of both physical and political geography, but rather more of the former than the latter. Hence many of the so-called "war maps" that have inundated us since the present struggle began, and which are merely designed to orient us horizontally in the war zones, would hardly deserve their name, even if they were the work of a Stieler or a Bartholomew.

It is unfortunate at the present juncture, and indeed at all times, that physical maps of all parts of the world are not as numerous and as easily accessible as political maps. The ideal "war map" would give as much emphasis to the relief and character of the ground, and to climatic conditions, as to the location of frontiers, rivers, towns, railways, and the like; or rather, as it is impracticable to include all these features on the same chart without confusion, we should have a series of "war maps" for any region involved in hostilities.

## THE VERTICAL DIMENSION

Relief has always been an important factor in warfare. It is more so to-day than ever before, on account of the increase in (1)

the size of armies, and (2) the weight of the artillery employed in the field. The recent campaign along the Franco-German frontier illustrates this fact in a striking manner.

When Hannibal invaded Italy he was obliged to cross a great mountain barrier—the Alps. This feat he accomplished in fifteen days, at the end of which time he found himself in the enemy's country with about 26,000 men, *i.e.*, less than a single modern *corps d'armée*.

At the opening of the present war the number of soldiers aligned on either side of the rugged border between France and Germany amounted to, say, a million and a half. Exact figures are unnecessary, as we are considering only the order of magnitude in its effect on operations under certain conditions of topography. Now consult the best available hypsographic<sup>1</sup> map of Europe, or of the

<sup>1</sup> Relief is shown on maps by means of hatchings, contour lines, shading, or tinting; or by actual relief models, or photographs thereof. The tinted map (generally in a few shades of buff and green, and often combined with hatchings) is the best for showing at a glance the broad features of elevation, and the approximate values of mountains, plateaux, etc. A very useful collection of such maps will be found in "The Continent of Europe," by Prof. L. W. Lyde (N. Y.: Macmillan Co., 1913).





THE FLAT COUNTRY INTO WHICH THE GERMAN DEFENSIVE HAS EXTENDED IN NORTHERN FRANCE AND BELGIUM

western war zone, and it will at once appear why neither the French nor the Germans were inclined to emulate the methods of Hannibal. First, as to the French. The Franco-German frontier is not wholly mountainous, though it is largely so; moreover, it is pierced by certain broad passes, or so-called "gates," which appear to constitute tempting routes of invasion, and have, in fact, served as such in the past. With the French it was not merely a question of effecting entrance into Germany by way of gaps in the natural frontier, but of fighting onward toward the heart of the Empire through hundreds of miles of rugged, mountainous country lying beyond it. The great mountain masses on both sides of the Rhine, most heavily forested, obviously make a French invasion of Germany a vastly more difficult undertaking than a German invasion of France. This was shown last month.

The Germans, on the other hand, already concentrated in immense numbers at Metz, Strassburg, and other places within easy striking distance of the passes, had no serious natural obstacles to surmount,—once they had solved the problem of getting a huge army well into France. A network of strategic railways facilitated their approach to every favorable point of ingress; the French fortresses along the eastern frontier would have suffered the fate reserved for Liège and Namur; topographical obstacles (mountains, forests, and deep-cut river-gorges) all lay within a hundred miles or less of the border; and beyond these the valleys of the Seine and the Marne, and the gentle slope of the Paris Basin, offered ideal conditions for sweeping onward—downhill—to the French capital.



FLOODED LANDS NEAR ANTWERP



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THE ROCKY SCHLUCHT PASS BETWEEN THE FRENCH DEPARTMENT OF VOSGES AND ALSACE

What actually happened can best be explained by considering what would happen if the waters of the Rhine should suddenly rise to a stupendous height along the whole course of the stream between Basel and Bonn, and if at the same time a gigantic upheaval of the land occurred along the right bank of the river, and again along a line from Bonn to Aix-la-Chapelle, so as to prevent any escape of the waters toward the east or north. Under these conditions the flood-wave, sweeping westward, would find its passage more or less impeded along the whole Franco-German border, but would nevertheless enter France in jets and trickles and narrow streams, which might subsequently reunite in a broad flood. The bulk of the water would, however, do just what the bulk of the German army did—inundate Belgium. At this point our simile breaks down, because the literal flood would pass on across southern Holland and into the North Sea, rather than into France.

This comparison of a modern army to a huge body of water is not made for rhetorical purposes, but to show why natural frontiers have become more valuable for defense than they ever were before, and why many historic "routes of invasion" are not available in a modern war between great nations. The time required for the passage of a given volume of water through an orifice of given dimensions can be easily calculated, and such calculations are constantly made by engi-

neers. It is not necessary to go back to the days of Hannibal to find cases in which a very destructive flood, metaphorically speaking, was small enough to pass quickly through a small orifice,—and in this metaphor I include among "orifices" not only mountain passes but practicable roads of any sort.

Time was when an invading army marched along a road. If the German host that invaded France had done this, the column would have been much over 1000 miles in length, and, assuming the railways to be destroyed by the retreating French, the act of crossing the frontier would have occupied at least three months. An invasion of a million men, against powerful opposition, is not made by a road, but by a number of parallel roads, and the intervening topography must be such as to enable the advancing columns to keep constantly in touch with one another. I am not a military critic, but it seems to me sufficiently obvious that the German violation of Belgian neutrality was a direct and absolutely inevitable response to topography, given the size of the armies engaged on each side; that the location of French forts was a minor consideration; and that the circumstances which impelled Germany to choose the Belgian route in invading France would, *a fortiori*, have forced France to choose the same route if she had invaded Germany.

The weight of modern mobile artillery probably enters into the question, but to what





BELGIAN DOG-TEAM TOILING UP A SAND-HILL

extent is still uncertain. German strategy hinged upon the use of colossal siege guns to reduce the French frontier forts and ultimately to batter a way into Paris. Assuming these to be safely delivered by the German

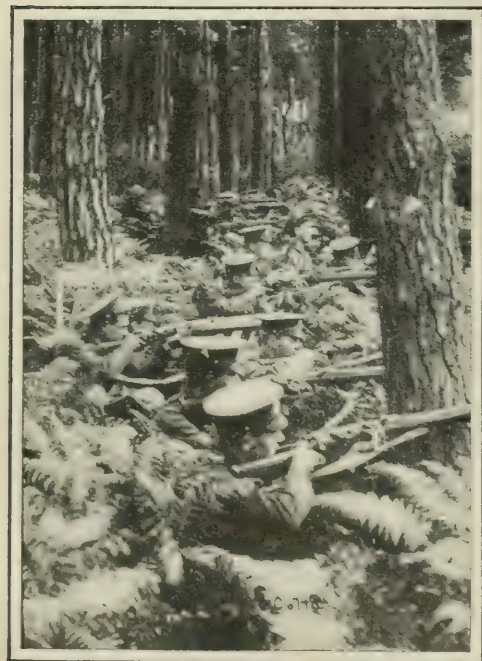
railways at the Franco-German border, the map suggests serious obstacles to their progress in northeastern France, while the gradients and the general character of the country along the route through Belgium were all that could be desired.

As to the relief features in the eastern war zone little need be said. There is no natural frontier between Russia and Germany, while between Russia and Austria-Hungary the political frontier is materially dislocated with respect to the natural frontier,—which is the Carpathians. From the Polish frontier toward Berlin the general slope of the land favors a Russian invasion, and the river valleys, especially those of the Warthe and the Oder, offer natural highways for such an invasion.

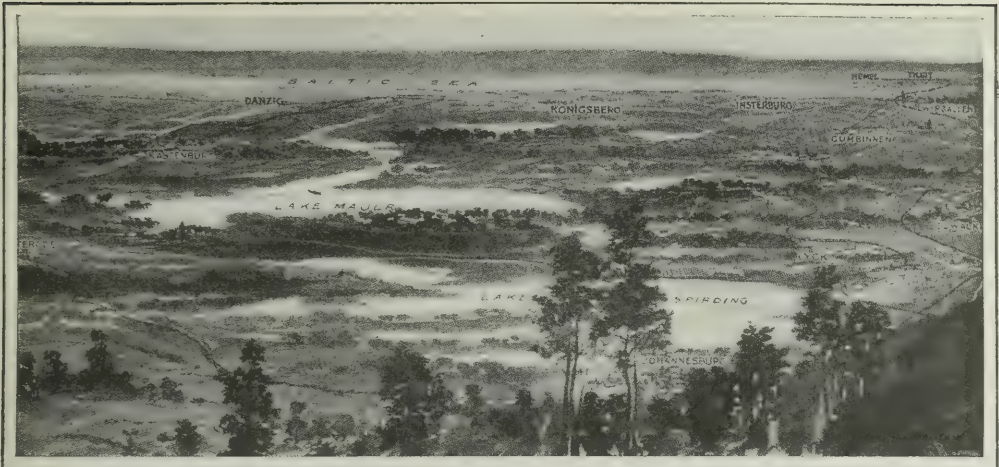
#### WHAT KIND OF COUNTRY?

It is impossible to say anything novel about the surface features of the principal war zones, because these have constantly obtruded themselves in the daily war news, and must have become familiar to everybody. Recapitulations are, however, sometimes serviceable.

The Vosges are real mountains, with peaks from 4000 to 4600 feet above the sea. In the Grandes Vosges, which lie on the Franco-German frontier, the summits frequently take a rounded shape, and are known by the apt



BRITISH TROOPS IN THE COMPIEGNE FOREST



THE MARSH AND LAKE COUNTRY IN WHICH RUSSO-GERMAN FIGHTING HAS TAKEN PLACE  
(The whole of this district in East Prussia is dotted with lakes)

name of *ballons*. Up to about 3600 feet these mountains are heavily forested, chiefly with beech and pine. The higher summits, above the tree-line, are covered with grass, and afford pasture to large herds of cattle. Only one railway,—at Belfort,—crosses the portion of these mountains lying on the frontier; the tortuous carriage roads are easy to obstruct and to defend.

West of the Vosges lies the wooded valley of the Moselle, and then the great Langres Plateau, which contains the headwaters of the Seine and the Marne. This is a sterile, monotonous country; generally wooded, and sparsely populated. Beyond it lies the basin of the Seine, an abundance of good roads, and, on the whole, good campaigning country all the way to Paris.

North of the Vosges and the Langres Plateau, near Toul and Nancy, there is a remarkable breach in the wall between France and Germany, giving passage to the Rhine-Marne Canal, a trunk line of railway, and magnificent roads. This is the most vulnerable point on the Franco-German frontier, and one of the principal streams of invasion recently poured through here, in the shape of the Army of the Rhine.

Yet farther north the dominating feature is the forested plateau of Ar-

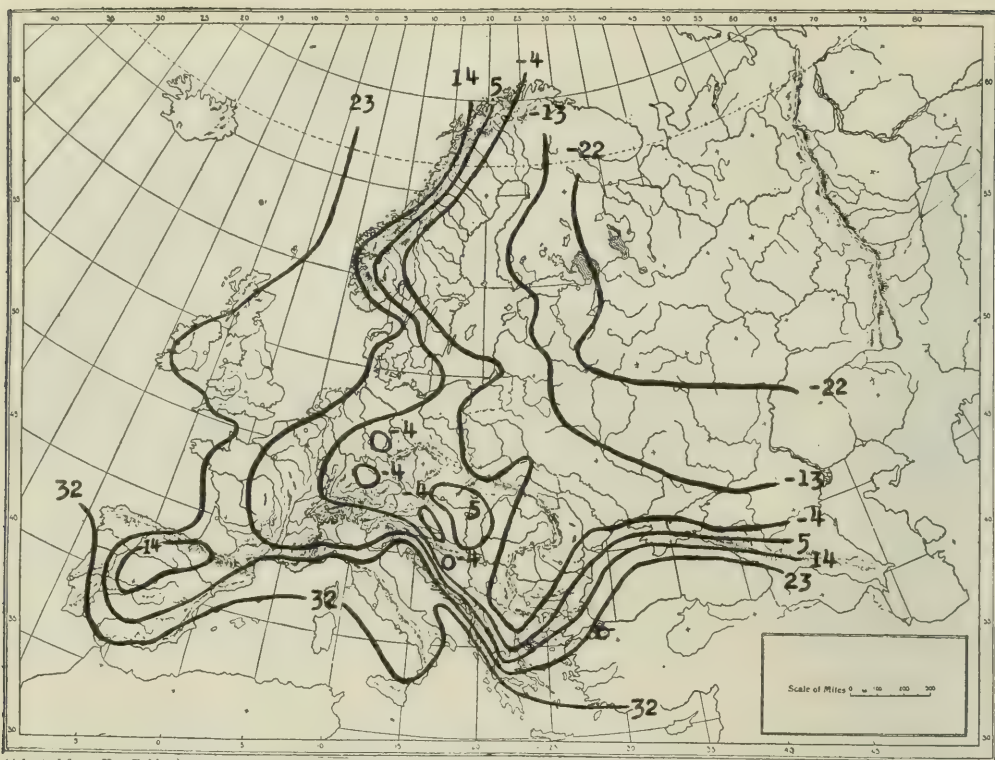
gonne, bordered on the east by the Meuse and on the west by the Aisne. This region, commanded by the great French fortress of Verdun, has been the scene of continual and desperate fighting in the present war, and the inability of the Germans to force a passage here is easily explained by the character of the country, which is exceedingly rough, with precipitous ravines and a substantial remnant of the dense forests that played so important a part in the campaign of 1792.

The eastern half of the Franco-Belgian border traverses another heavily wooded plateau, the Ardennes, with the somewhat lower uplands of the Fagnes and the Famenne along its northwestern border. This plateau



A CARPATHIAN VALLEY IN GALICIA





(Adapted from Van Bebber)

#### NORMAL MINIMUM TEMPERATURES IN EUROPE (FAHRENHEIT)

(This chart shows the coldest weather likely to be experienced during an average winter. The minus sign indicates temperatures below zero)

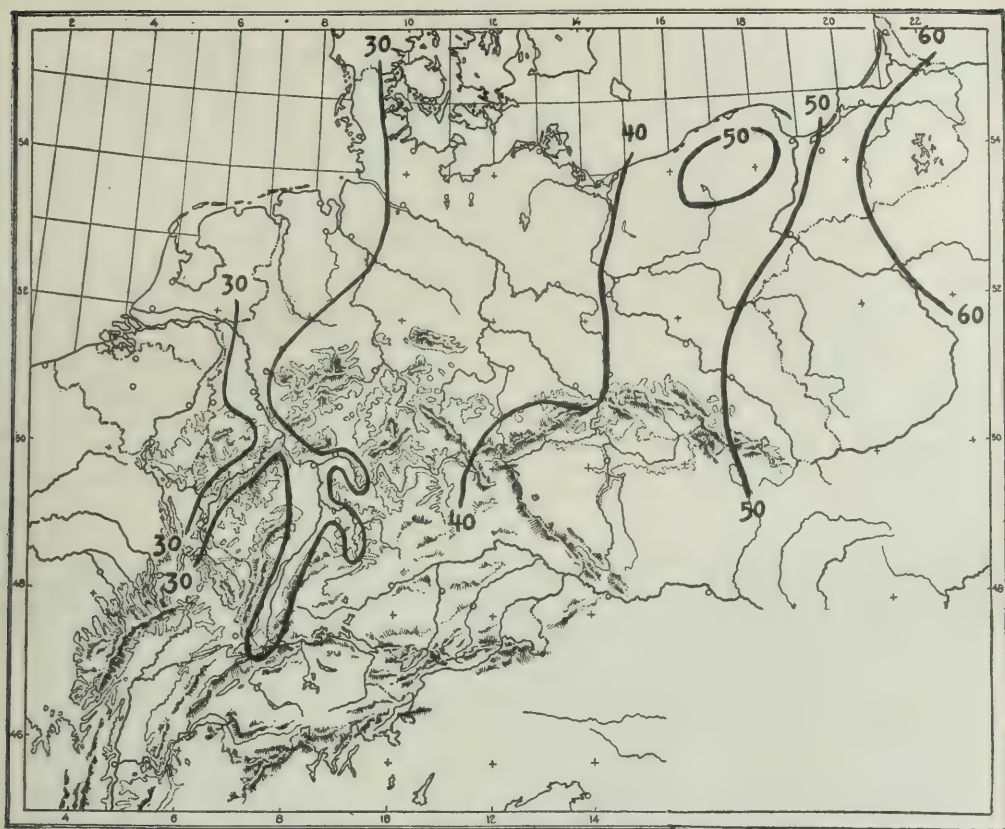
is even more rugged than the Argonne. It is pierced from south to north by the gorge-like valley of the Meuse, with bold limestone cliffs, rising in places a sheer five or six hundred feet, and crowned with picturesque towns and castles quite suggestive of the Rhine. Dinant, so often pictured of late in connection with the war bulletins, presents a typical landscape in this valley.

Northwest of the Sambre, which winds through low, wooded hills and is the main artery of a great mining and manufacturing country, lies the low plateau of Hainaut and Brabant (averaging 300 feet above sea-level); "the lazy Scheldt"; and the flat lowland of Flanders. This country is a labyrinth of canals and sluggish streams, much given to floods. All of Flanders is low, especially a broad zone along the coast, no eminence of which, except the sand-dunes, exceeds a dozen feet above sea-level, while in the neighborhood of Furnes the land lies as much as seven feet below sea-level. Naturally, dikes are required to hold the waters in check. Western Belgium, with its canals and polders, is, in fact, a second Holland. The population is extremely dense, and good

roads, railways, and tramways abound everywhere.

Last of all in the western war zone we have the northern half of what is called the Paris Basin, stretching northward from the Seine. This is mainly a great belted plain, the land sloping gently upward away from Paris, and at intervals dropping in escarpments that face toward Germany. West of the Oise the country is almost wholly agricultural and industrial; south of the Oise and the Aisne there are extensive forests, as well as tracts of farmland and vineyards. This country is, of course, thickly settled and provided with an abundance of splendid roads.

In marked contrast to these populous western lands, with their admirable communications, is the vast plain and plateau region of East Prussia and Russian Poland, so much of which is wild and sparsely settled; with great wolf-haunted forests, huge bogs, innumerable lakes and generally few and indifferent roads. The difficult campaigning country of East Prussia is of immense strategic value to Germany, furnishing an almost impregnable position from which to strike at



NUMBER OF DAYS ON WHICH SNOW FALLS DURING AN AVERAGE GERMAN WINTER (AFTER HELLMANN)

the communications of a Russian army advancing through Poland.

Finally, Galicia, north of the Carpathians, is a plateau region, quite densely populated (240 inhabitants per square mile), and well provided with roads. Nearly half the total area of the province is farmland, about one-fourth woodland, and the rest mostly meadow and pasture, less than a quarter of one per cent. being lake and swamp.

#### THE CLIMATE

The fundamental facts concerning the climate of the portions of Europe with which we are here concerned are that (1) the winds are prevailingly from westerly quadrants, and therefore blow from great bodies of water,—the Atlantic, the North Sea, and the Baltic,—giving to the adjacent lands much moisture and a moderate range of temperature; and (2) the weather is very changeable, under the influence of a constant procession of “highs” and “lows” (anticyclones and cyclones), though hardly so changeable as in the northeastern United States, because European storm-tracks tend to run far north-

ward, over Scandinavia and northern Russia, so that the regions where fighting is now in progress often feel only the brief border influences of these passing disturbances.

In the western war zone the lowlands have virtually a marine climate; the summers are cool, while the winters are generally not cold, measured in terms of the thermometer, though they are so moist as to be extremely uncomfortable to men in the trenches. “Zero weather” (on the Fahrenheit scale) is not unknown in this region, though it occurs only at intervals of several years. Snow falls on several days each winter, but it is almost never heavy. The winters are cloudy and foggy. In the highlands, such as the Ardennes and the Vosges, the winters are decidedly rigorous, and the snow is often deep enough to interfere seriously with military operations. On the upper slopes of the Vosges winter temperatures of 10 degrees below zero (Fahr.) are not uncommon, and the snow lies here half the year 'round. Throughout the western war zone the temperature during an average summer rarely rises above 90, while hardly once in a decade does it rise to



95. All in all, this region has cooler summers, milder winters, more clouds and fog, and more frequent but lighter rainfall, than the northeastern United States.

The theater of operations in the east has a transition climate between the marine conditions of western Europe and the continental conditions of the interior of Russia. The summers are hotter and the winters much colder than in the region just described. The climate of East Prussia is somewhat tempered by winds from the Baltic, yet in an average winter there are from forty to fifty days on which the temperature does not rise above freezing in the afternoon, and there are from 110 to 140 nights in the year on which the thermometer falls below the freezing-point. At Königsberg the temperature does not fall below zero nor rise above

86 in a normal year, but inland the range of temperature is much greater.

In Russian Poland snow lies on the ground from sixty to eighty days in the year, and the rivers are generally ice-bound from the latter part of December to the beginning of March. Temperatures above 90 are not uncommon in summer.

Galicia has short, hot summers, and long cold winters. The severity of the latter is especially due to the fact that the Carpathians prevent the ingress of southerly winds. Przemyśl has in recent years known a minimum temperature of 13 below zero, and Lemberg 18 below, though in a normal winter the temperature rarely falls more than 5 or 6 degrees below zero in this province, except in the mountains. The snowfall is abundant.



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#### WINTER TIME IN THE TRENCHES AT YPRES

(The soldiers in the trenches began in November to feel the blasts of winter and suffer hardships due to the cold)

# THE PRESS AS AFFECTED BY THE WAR

BY OSWALD GARRISON VILLARD

(President of the New York *Evening Post*)

FOR one thing this war has made it impossible to revive to any extent the old charge that the newspapers brought it on. Unquestionably, the Austrian press had much to do with preparing the public mind for the ultimatum to Servia, the sensational murder of the Archduke giving it the excuse for every sort of accusation and hostile attack upon their small but, to them, pestiferous neighbor, Servia. In England the *London Times*, during the critical days from July 28 to August 3, printed a series of despatches from St. Petersburg of which it will not be maintained that they made for anything else than bad blood, though they must have given immense satisfaction in the Czar's capital.

Other British newspapers of jingo type, Conservative and Liberal, eagerly upheld the Foreign Minister, for whom Bernard Shaw hopes a reduction at least to the rank of Prime Minister as a result of this national crisis, so that he may not have the power to involve England in war all by himself. But the time was so short between the first alarm and the actual beginning of hostilities that the Hessians of the press were not able really to bring their batteries into action, particularly in Germany, where early appreciation of the overwhelming magnitude of the danger added sobriety to their first-page leaders.

## WAR DOES NOT BENEFIT THE NEWSPAPERS

By and large, the press was as much surprised by the suddenness with which the tornado burst as anyone else. There was no time given prior to hostilities for the mobilization of correspondents and scouts. Veteran war reporters, usually able to scent trouble from afar, and ready for the first shots, were caught unprepared and far from the scene of action. The paralyzing of ocean traffic made it all the more difficult to reach the front, and when the correspondents did finally arrive there, never was a military front so coldly inhospitable.

For another thing, if this war lasts as long as Lord Kitchener prophesies, it ought

effectually to dispose of the familiar popular fallacy that war is a good thing for the press. Newspaper men have put up with no more trying person than the friend who slaps them on the back and says, "Well, old man, this war may be bad for some kinds of business, but it's fine for yours." Nothing could be further from the truth. Newspapers, for some devilish reason or another, may incite to war, as did some of our "yellows" in 1898, and the *London Times* prior to the Boer war, but they pay a pretty price for it even when it does not bring with it a national industrial and financial depression. There is nothing that a business manager or managing editor dreads as much as war, for nothing so quickly sends up the budget. There are the special correspondents and their expenses, the costly pictures to illustrate their articles; the staff photographers, when such are permitted; the cost of extra news services and of the reports of such star syndicate writers as Richard Harding Davis.

## THE INCREASED COST OF NEWSPAPERS IN WAR TIMES

The cable tolls go up with such rapidity that one great New York daily has sent an expert editor to London merely to take out the needless words from cable messages, and he is understood to be much more than covering his salary by the savings he makes. Thus far the Associated Press, which serves 900 American newspapers, has met the enormously increased cost of cabling by cutting down on its domestic news and drawing on its surplus.

Not in the lifetime of men of fifty has so little news about the rest of the country appeared in the Eastern press as in these last few months. On one day in September two of the leading New York newspapers, which contained five and six pages of cable news from Europe, printed, one of them only three and the other four despatches from any domestic points outside of New York, excepting Washington. Not until election time came was there a substantial change in this situation. Thus, among the



curious effects of the war has been a temporary news isolation of the West, South, and North from the East.

Then there are the extra editions. They involve heavy expense, not only in composition and paper, but in actual handling. There are extra trips to be made by wagons and bundle-carriers, while the cost of expressing and mailing of bundles to suburbs and nearby cities has to be met. But, says the layman, you are selling more newspapers and so making plenty of money. Unfortunately for the newspaper publisher, this is not true, particularly for the newspapers sold at one cent. The proceeds from the sale of copies of the newspaper never meet the cost of the paper upon which they are printed unless the issue is held down to twelve pages, so that increased circulation, unless accompanied by increased advertising, is a loss. In fact, the average publisher regards a large circulation as undesirable in itself, but as a means to an end. He wants a large output so that he may influence the advertiser to pay him for announcing his goods, for, as few laymen can seem to understand, it is the advertising which supports our journals and gives them their profit.

#### MANY PUBLICATIONS MUST SUSPEND

But, the reader may ask, if you obtain an increase in advertising with an increase in circulation, does not a war largely add to a newspaper's advertising revenues? To this the answer is that a war checks advertising fully as effectively, if not perhaps more quickly, than a financial panic, and this applies to magazines as well as to dailies. This is particularly true of the present struggle. *T. P.'s Weekly*, the well-known London publication, declared soon after the outbreak of the war that if hostilities lasted a year a handful only of the strongest English dailies would escape bankruptcy. A superficial perusal of the *London Times* and the *Manchester Guardian* is sufficient to convince anybody that this is not a wild prophecy. The cessation of certain lines of advertising is complete; the loss as compared with conditions a year ago is staggering.

It is reliably reported in newspaper circles that the *London Times'* advertising revenue from America alone dropped \$10,000 in a single month. Already some of the weaker British publications have begun to go down. One important church publication, laboriously built up, has had to curtail its appear-

ance, and a reform organ, just reaching the point where it could show a satisfactory balance-sheet, has been wiped out. When one picks up a London evening newspaper like the *Westminster Gazette* and sees the almost total dearth of advertising, it is easy to foresee plenty of journalistic wrecks along the Strand unless there are sufficient rich men found to foot the deficits for personal or political reasons.

#### THE GREAT LOSS OF ADVERTISING REVENUE

In this country, too, the war has had a grave effect upon newspaper advertising income. All financial and steamship advertising has practically ceased. Publishers find a market chiefly for war books and are advertising less than usual. And so it goes. The three strongest advertising mediums in New York lost, between August 1 and December 1, 1089, 1488, and 2926 columns of advertising, respectively, as contrasted with their showing for the same months in 1913. If we assume, very conservatively, that they usually receive on an average of \$80 a column, this represents a falling off in income of \$87,120, \$115,840, and \$234,080, respectively.

When to this are added the enormously increased costs due to the gathering of war news, even the layman can understand why it is that newspapers are reducing the number of their reporters and editors, cutting off all special domestic despatches, and striving in every way to decrease expenses. If this results in cutting out some unnecessary waste and the devising of more economical methods, the gain is none the less comparatively slight. The reader can appreciate, in short, why it is that from the point of view of their own exchequer newspapers ought to be the chief advocates of peace.

It is quite possible,—even a journalist must admit it,—that if a number of newspaper wrecks should occur with a resultant decrease in our journalistic output, the thinking American public might regard this not as one of the horrors but as one of the pitifully few blessings that come out of such a horrible strife as we are now witnessing. The trouble is, as the English experience has shown, that some valuable journals of small means may go down, while richer and less desirable survive.

If we turn from the embattled counting-rooms to the editorial departments, we find the editors also grappling with war problems of the utmost difficulty, intensified by the

fact that the great bulk of the war news must come through London and is subjected to British censorship. London has always been, besides the greatest financial mart, the world's chief exchange and clearing-house for news. When, therefore, the British cut the German cables to this country they took a step which has done much to intensify the bitter feeling against Great Britain that now pervades all Germany to such an extent as to leave comparatively little room for animosity against the other Allies.

#### THE BRITISH CENSORSHIP

If the Germans are manifestly wrong in attributing to the cutting of the cables their failure to win American public opinion to their side, they undeniably have a just grievance against the British censor and so has the American press. To those conversant with the facts as to the stupidity, the one-sidedness, and the political bent of the British censorship, this war has given a severe shock; it will be hard for them to believe again in the good sportsmanship of Englishmen.

#### STUPIDITY OF THE CENSORS

The London censorship has been a disgrace to England primarily because of its folly. Thus, dozens of German official despatches were not permitted to pass over the cables, although they were being received in New York by wireless via Sayville at the same time. As if there were no mails from Italy, the London censor suppressed the late Pope's call to Catholics to pray for peace, on the ground,—so it is believed in some quarters,—that the United States, being a great Catholic country, it would not be to England's advantage to have American Catholics praying for peace!

Another stupid half-pay colonel twice gave out important news items to the Central News or the Hearst News services, because, he said, they served only a few newspapers, perhaps fifty, and denied it to the Associated Press because it supplied news to 900 newspapers! Not content with suppression, these same half-pay colonels next edited an important utterance by President Poincaré, of France, changing it to suit their taste because they did not like some of the things he said and did not wish the English public to know them. This was a typical case, but by no means the only one of alteration of despatches.

The censors have not stopped there, however; they have censored or suppressed their own Prime Minister's speeches and those of

the Foreign Minister on the ground that they would create an unfavorable impression abroad. They have laid heavy hands on the King's messages to India and the Dominions, and even the outgivings of their own press bureau.

Although Winston Churchill solemnly promised at the beginning of the war that every naval loss would be promptly reported to the House of Commons, the sinking of the *Audacious* was carefully suppressed both at home and abroad. They have so completely concealed all news of the military movements and progress that at the censors' doors are laid the responsibility for the slump in recruiting which so frightened the British Ministry until the story of the gallant retreat of Sir John French's army was made known through the publication of the narrative of the eloquent official reporter, Col. E. D. Swinton. It is generally believed in newspaper circles that the responsibility for this rigid censorship rests with Lord Kitchener, whose dislike for correspondents is notorious. The late Lord Roberts, on the other hand, was much more favorably disposed; indeed, he owed not a little of his great reputation with the English public to such brilliant correspondents as Archibald Forbes and Bennet Burleigh. No one could accuse men of this type of doing mischief. Besides keeping the British informed of the progress of their various small wars, they more than once enriched literature.

With the suppression of the news of military movements there can be no quarrel; the concealment of the news of the loss of a ship is, of course, legitimate from the military point of view. Indeed, with an efficient military censorship no one can justly find fault.

#### RIGHT AND WRONG CENSORING

But what the American press is complaining about is that the British censorship is turning from a military into a political one. American journalists have the right to assert that it is beyond the functions of a foreign censor to say whether Americans shall or shall not receive news of a Papal letter; whether they shall be given a falsified account of a speech by the President of France, and whether there is any news from Germany which British censors have a right to suppress. Wars are not won in this way, particularly when the mails are open and German letters and newspapers arrive with amazing regularity by way of Holland and Italy.

The favorable opinion of the United



States is being courted as never before in its history, but that public opinion is not to be won by falsifications on either side. And there have been misrepresentations on the German side, too. Indeed, if the Associated Press had carried out a recent plan to expose at length the London suppression and mishandling of the news, public sentiment as to England in this country would have been unfavorably affected to a considerable extent.

#### SEMI-OFFICIAL NEWS AGENCIES

The difficulties of the situation are, if anything, intensified by the semi-official character of at least two of the foreign agencies, the Agence Havas and the Wolff Agency. Reuter's, with headquarters in London, is responsible for the news of all of the great English over-sea dominions, except Canada, and for Great Britain as well. The Havas Agency, with headquarters in Paris, is responsible for the Latin countries, Spain, Portugal, France, Belgium, and Switzerland. The Wolff Bureau covers, in peace times, Germany, Austria, Turkey in Europe, Russia, the Balkan States, Scandinavia, and the German colonies. All of them work in coöperation with the officials from whom they draw their governmental and political news, even Reuter being subject to pressure from them. It is easy to understand the difficulties that this creates for the Associated Press, which stands aloof from all officialdom, and it makes it the more difficult to obtain news for the United States during this conflict which is unbiased and uncolored.

#### THE REPORTING OF MILITARY OPERATIONS

Plainly, there are two markedly different theories as to the reporting of military operations,—that which controlled in our Civil War and the modern policy of having, if possible, no correspondent within a hundred miles of the front. From 1861 to 1865 correspondents accompanied our armies and were free not only to describe battles and marches, but to criticize operations, generals, and admirals. That much harm resulted from this is indisputable. Military information of value was gathered by both sides through the exchange of newspapers at the picket-lines. But the chief injury done, some think, was through the criticism of plans of campaigns and of generals, and the rousing thereby of animosities within the armies and the starting up of political movements or of unwise public demands for action or non-action.

By contrast, the extreme military view to-day is that nothing shall appear save a brief daily official despatch. This is the case in Germany to-day. Even there, however, military experts may interpret these despatches to the public after approval of the censorship, and certain selected correspondents have been allowed to do descriptive writing in the rear of the armies. Criticism is, of course, forbidden, as is to be expected in an autocracy. At first the company of foreign correspondents, like that of foreign military observers, was everywhere declined with thanks. Now, however, they are being welcomed in some degree; indeed, the charges of misconduct by German soldiers and of unnecessary harshness in waging war have apparently made the Germans regret that they did not from the first ask a number of correspondents from neutral lands to accompany their armies. At least they have used to the fullest extent the favorable reports of Messrs. Irvin Cobb, John T. McCutcheon, and the other American reporters who fell into their hands in Belgium.

The writer's father, who reported the operations of the Federal armies and fleets from the first battle of Bull Run through the Wilderness campaign, and reached Austria in 1866, in time to describe the wreck of the Austrian armies and the aftermath of the Prussian success, was fond of saying that were he a general he would allow no correspondents at the front. The mischief his own fraternity did in 1861-65 seemed to him to outweigh the good. But in a republic, at least, there are other conditions to be considered than the purely military.

#### THE PUBLIC IS ENTITLED TO KNOW

The public cannot be left in all but total ignorance of a campaign; it must be informed in some detail as to what is going on if the war spirit is to be kept up, and, since it may be called upon to change its rulers in the middle of a war, as it had to choose between Lincoln and McClellan in 1864, it is entitled to the true facts upon which to form its judgment. Again, if the good opinion of the rest of the neutral world is desired, something more than official despatches is needed to win it; certainly all the German official bulletins thus far issued have not overcome the unfavorable judgments caused by non-official reports of the happenings in Belgium. On the other hand, even in war-time there is genuine danger in giving to military men complete control of a situation.

Besides the present illustration of this in England, we had a perfect example of it during our early warfare in the Philippines. There was an ideal situation for the working of a military censorship; there was but one cable and no correspondent could penetrate into the interior save with an army column.

The net result was not creditable to those in charge; the censorship, to say the least, was partisan. It speedily became political. Nothing unfavorable to the contentions of the McKinley government was allowed to come out. Constant charges that Mr. Bryan's speeches were encouraging the Filipinos were cabled, as well as other reflections upon Democrats and Democratic policies. Just as the censors to-day, whether they be in London, Paris, or Petrograd, conceal all bad news or gloss over defeats with euphemisms, only good news came out of Manila. So frankly political, so intolerable did this censorship become, that some influential journalists called upon the Secretary of War and were successful by threat of exposure in bringing about a change, not, however, until the American public had received an erroneous impression as to what was going on in the archipelago. It is needless to say that no news of the soldier wrong-doing in the Philippines, such as the use of the abominably inhuman water-cure, to which a stop was finally put by a vigorous order by President Roosevelt, could get by the censor. In this case the army needed to be saved by publicity from the effects of its own wrong-doing.

#### AN UNMUZZLED PRESS ABSOLUTELY NECESSARY

This is nothing more than saying that frail human nature, even at its best, suffers when given arbitrary power over others, particularly if those whom it controls are objects of race prejudice, or of national hatreds. If the press is necessary in peace times in every country, republic or absolute monarchy, to prevent the abuse of power by those holding office, it is in the long run equally necessary that it should have some voice in war-time to present all the vital facts and to reflect to the commanding generals the temper of the people whose battles they are fighting. We come perilously close to despotism when a few men, whatever the emergency, concentrate all power in their own hands, and then by an impenetrable cloak of silence effectively veil their actions. What may happen in those circumstances is forever on record in the history of the

fall of the French Government in 1870 and of the Commune, which quite naturally followed the German victories and the exposure of the campaign of lies and misinformation with which the military men of Napoleon III deluded the people.

#### WHY FIELD CORRESPONDENTS ARE NEEDED

It would seem, therefore, as if a well-controlled system of field correspondents were necessary; indeed, the amount of news sent in by special representatives of American newspapers shows that, despite European military autocrats, the American reporter has been able to get to the front and to mail uncensored stories to this country to delight his managing editor. The writer is inclined to believe, as already indicated, that as the war progresses the restrictions will be loosened rather than tightened, as they have been in Germany (illustrated by the publication, on November 30, of an interview with the German Crown Prince); that the military leaders will feel the need of the moral support that comes from an enlightened and intelligent public opinion; that they will realize that the only basis for genuine mutual confidence between the military and the public is absolute truth-telling, whether it be favorable or unfavorable, by those who control the news; that public and army are interwoven in their best interests.

A powerful factor in bringing about this change should be a realization of how the several belligerent countries are being hurt by the false information, the cruel and misleading rumors that appear about them abroad, which can, in the long run, best be overcome by full and frank statements, both from official and unofficial sources. That any censorship will ever work to complete satisfaction may well be doubted, since it is at best founded on suppression, deceit, and concealment, however justifiable that may be in war-time.

From the viewpoint of humanity one may well ask, too, whether the censorship in war-times does not work against the coming of universal peace. How may we best rouse the moral sentiment of the world against war? Surely not by suppressing the horrors of the battlefield, by failing to portray to people everywhere the wickedness of taking human life on a grand scale.

American journalists, it would seem, cannot have any more patriotic duty in this hour than to portray truthfully the breakdown of militarism as taught and practised by the nations of Europe.



# GOVERNOR BRUMBAUGH OF PENNSYLVANIA

BY ELLIS PAXSON OBERHOLTZER

THE election of Dr. Martin Grove Brumbaugh, the Republican candidate, to the governorship of Pennsylvania, came as the result of an ably conducted campaign in which he abundantly demonstrated his drawing power, as he went among the people. He called them from their old ways to new things, appealed to their imaginations and brought back to Republicanism that which it had seemed to lack, a prophetic note born of the spirit of a vexed and changing time.

Dr. Brumbaugh comes from that German stock which is called Pennsylvania-German, and which has been a factor in the population so long,—since the early part of the eighteenth century,—that it has already given the State a half dozen sturdy governors. Some of these Germans in Pennsylvania were Lutherans, but many were adherents of a variety of interesting sects—Pietists, Mennonites, Dunkers, Schwenkfelders, Moravians, etc. They settled the counties north and west of those occupied by William Penn's Quakers, and were drawn to the colony to enjoy the liberty of conscience, which he promised to all men. Dr. Brumbaugh's ancestors were Dunkers, a religious group which emigrated to Pennsylvania almost in a body. He himself is its historian. He is a licensed preacher of the church, as his father and his grandfather were before him, and from time to time he preaches a sermon as acceptably as he addresses a teachers' institute or a political meeting.

Dr. Brumbaugh was born fifty-two years ago in Huntingdon County, a land of wooded hills and mountains. It is drained by the "blue Juniata," a stream as pretty as its name, along whose winding course Charles Dickens, Harriet Martineau, and all the travelers from east to west and west to east were conveyed in canal boats before the construction of the Pennsylvania Railroad. Much they all found to say of the beauty of this valley. Dr. Brumbaugh came from the soil in this picturesque east-central part of the State. He calls the simple farming people

of this region his "home folks," and they in turn call him "M. G." or now since he has been honored with university degrees "Dr. M. G." and "the Doc." It has been an event of some moment for a dozen years in Huntingdon when he left the train, and it was noised about that he was come to town.

In Martin's early youth his father owned considerable tracts of woodland, but disaster came and the boy before he was sixteen, then as tall and sturdy as he is to-day, went up into the hills to bring out the timber to pay the paternal debts. While he worked among the trees and on the farm he studied, and after he studied he became a school teacher. Then his neighbors, while he was still only twenty-one years of age, made him Superintendent of Schools of Huntingdon County. He was easy and fluent of speech. He was an optimist in his outlook, and he became a figure in his county institute, a convention of his teachers held once a year.

## ORGANIZER OF PORTO RICAN SCHOOLS

Soon he was asked to visit and speak before institutes in other counties, and was so successful that, upon the recommendation of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania, he was engaged in 1886 to organize the institute system in Louisiana. For several successive summers he traveled through the cottonfields and the canebrakes of that State in this service. Teaching and the education of teachers had become his vocation. He would improve himself,—make himself more fit for his duties. So he took up post-graduate studies at Harvard and the University of Pennsylvania. In 1894, before he had received his doctor's degree he was elected professor of pedagogy in the University of Pennsylvania. Then after the Spanish war, which resulted in our acquisition of Porto Rico, President McKinley asked Provost Harrison, of the University, whom he could recommend to organize an American school system in that island. The Provost said Brumbaugh was

the man. He obtained a leave of absence from the University and for two years he was employed in important administrative work at San Juan. To this day his wholesome, hearty, friend-making qualities have not been forgotten in the island. One of the streets bears his name. You may ride down the Calle Brumbaugh when you visit San Juan.

SUPERINTENDENT OF  
PHILADELPHIA'S  
SCHOOL SYSTEM

Returning to Philadelphia, Dr. Brumbaugh resumed his chair of pedagogy, but in 1906 he was elected superintendent of the schools of Philadelphia. In this office he developed, extended, and improved the system of public education of the city in many directions. He permitted no unworthy consideration to influence his course. His open contest for the divorce of politics and education has been well fought, and it gave the people of the State as of the city a guaranty, when his name came before them for the governorship, that he would hew to the line of manliness and honesty in a greater field.

A POPULAR FIGURE IN HIS STATE

So they thought and so they expressed themselves through their suffrages in November. Many thousands who had made their adieux to the Republican party said that they still were not ready to return to it under Mr. Penrose's leadership, but they would accept the leadership of a man like Dr. Brumbaugh. Their children had studied his text-books in the schools; they had heard him in the teachers' institutes in all of the sixty-one counties of the State,—in many of them dozens of times,—they were given good accounts of his war for independence in Philadelphia. Also they had read his platform,—its phrases were happy, breathed a moral purpose, and rang through the State. They looked at his rugged form and his honest face as he stood up before them in the campaign, pledging them good government. They liked his readiness on the stump; his hopeful words about the destiny



PENNSYLVANIA'S NEW GOVERNOR—A RECENT PORTRAIT

of a party, which some of them had forsaken, and to which they would be pleased,—if a suitable way opened,—to return; his declaration that Pennsylvania could conduct its own internal affairs without the aid of foreign sages, and his attacks upon all men who in this way and that for so long had assailed the good name of the State.

Most of all were the masses of men,—those who make up the bone and sinew of the electorate,—pleased to think and feel that he was somehow one of them. On his stumping tours he could go into a sawmill and talk about the machinery and the wood, a craft he had learned as a boy; as cordially take the callous hands of men in blouses and overalls in foundries, and be the good brother of farmers, drovers and miners as he could greet a school superintendent or a college president. His cheery salutations and pleasant retorts, the allusion and anecdote,—much of it homely,—with which his mind is full, gave him some of the personal power which such figures as Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay and Abraham Lincoln earlier brought into our public life. This is the leader who has fused the broken parts of the Republican party in Pennsylvania, and who now for four years, unless by chance, as his friends already hope, he should be called to perform a similar service in a larger field, will be the Governor of the State.



# A GALAXY OF NEW GOVERNORS

IN most of our forty-eight States, the beginning of a new year brings special reason for interest in the public affairs of the commonwealth. New Governors, for the most part, begin their terms in January, and legislatures as a rule come into session in the opening days of the year. Twenty-nine of our States elected Governors on November 3, while Maine and Arkansas elected Governors in September. All of these thirty-one (with the single exception of the Governor of Georgia), enter upon the duties of the governorship in the present month of January. Twenty-two of these Governors-elect are new men, while nine are the present executives, who are honored by reelection for another term.

It may well be supposed that the citizens in each one of the twenty-nine States that elected Governors on November 3 knew something of their own candidates and their own State problems. But it is unquestionably true that most of them knew very little indeed about the candidates and problems of other States. Furthermore, it ought to be said with emphasis that they did not have a wholly favorable opportunity for dealing with their own State candidates and State issues, for a reason that deserves clear statement and wide discussion. Let us face that reason and judge of its weight.

On that same day, November 3, the voting population of the United States was engaged in the general election of a new Congress. The country is divided into 435 Congressional districts, in each one of which (excepting in the four districts of Maine, where the elections were held in September), a Representative was being chosen. The leaders of the great parties were demanding that the voters fix their minds upon national and international questions and policies. President Wilson and the cabinet were asking the country to roll up a Democratic victory in the election of Congressmen, as a means of expressing a vote of confidence in the national administration, at a time when a great program of domestic legislation and action was at stake, and when world problems were of exceptional gravity.

Besides electing Congressmen, thirty-one

of the forty-eight States were on that day electing United States Senators by the process, for the first time in our history, of direct universal suffrage. National affairs ought periodically to have their uninterrupted day in the great court of the people. But the time has come when State affairs also ought to have their separate day with the voters, so that they may not be subordinated to national policies or political exigencies.

National affairs involve politics in the large sense of the word. State affairs have very little to do with the tariff, or the problems that have divided the people into great parties. The politicians naturally prefer to have national and State elections come on the same day. It facilitates the political game; and it helps to keep the profitable and interesting business of State government in the hands of political machines and professional politicians.

One of the principal excuses for electing State legislatures and Governors on party lines has been found heretofore in the fact that legislatures were intrusted with the selection of United States Senators, and these almost invariably have been chosen on distinctively partisan lines. But now that the Senators are elected by the people, the legislatures have nothing to do but give their whole attention to State affairs.

Since Congresses and Presidents are elected in the even years, Governors and legislatures ought now always to be elected in the odd years. The functions of our States are steadily increasing, and the amounts of money that they collect and expend are growing much more rapidly than the population. There is a tendency to demand an increased concentration of authority and power in the hands of the Governor.

Thus the Governor has great opportunities to promote his State's advancement; and there is a sentiment now evident throughout the country in favor of a higher average of intelligent and efficient work in the domain of State government. There is no danger of a lack of the spirit and feeling of national unity. The things that belong to the country as a whole will be managed at Washington with due concentration of interest

and power. But we have at the same time a marvelous opportunity to develop each State in its own individual character, through its State government. Each State may learn much from its own experience, and may also profit by the results worked out in the other forty-seven States regarded as so many laboratories of political and administrative experimentation.

In all this work it is plain that our Governors have an opportunity to achieve fine records by showing fidelity to their trusts. They may make notably good appointments, and devote themselves to the development of constructive State policies. They may bring firm, close, efficient administration into the management of State departments. This will be particularly true when we increase the appointive power of Governors and shorten the length of State tickets.

In spite of parties and politics, we do manage to choose a great many excellent men as Governors of our States. This has always been true throughout our history. Many men who have served well in the House of Representatives or in the Senate have been made Governors of their States. Many who have served well as Governors have been sent to the United States Senate. Statesmanship and executive ability in the work of a Governor, together with the demonstrated ability to carry a critical State at the polls, have served to bring a great number of Governors into prominence as active candidates for the Presidency.

Thus, President Wilson was Governor of New Jersey. President Taft had been Governor of the Philippines. President Roosevelt had been Governor of New York. President McKinley had been Governor of Ohio. President Cleveland had been Governor of New York. President Harrison had been Governor of Indiana. President Hayes had been Governor of Ohio. When our States choose their Governors with more exclusive reference to State problems, and with less thought for their political affiliations, able and successful Governors will not be less likely to be chosen by popular vote as members of the United States Senate, nor more likely to be overlooked by the

country in its search for Presidential timber.

Something as regards the personality and the public experience of the new men who come into the Governors' chairs seems to us well worthy of presentation in this number of the REVIEW. An especially notable new Governor, Mr. Brumbaugh, of Pennsylvania, has been selected for particular notice, as embodied in the article immediately preceding these notes.

As a convenient memorandum, our readers

may like to be reminded that the nine Governors who have been reelected and will be inaugurated for new terms are: David I. Walsh (Democrat), of Massachusetts; Woodbridge N. Ferris (Democrat), of Michigan; George W. Clarke (Republican), of Iowa; John H. Morehead (Democrat), of Nebraska; Louis B. Hanna (Republican), of North Dakota; Frank M. Byrne (Republican), of South Dakota; Hiram W. Johnson (Progressive), of California; George W. P. Hunt (Democrat), of Arizona; and George W. Hays (Democrat), of Arkansas. Our notes relate chiefly to the new men.



Photo by Am. Press Ass'n

GOV. CHARLES S. WHITMAN  
(New York)

#### GOVERNOR WHITMAN, OF NEW YORK

No new Governor has gained wider fame than Charles S. Whitman, who becomes the chief executive of the State of New York. We have already, in this REVIEW, at different times, given information about Mr. Whitman; and in our number for June we published an extended article from his pen on the organization and work of his office,—the most important prosecuting agency in the world. His services in the elimination of crime and vice in the great metropolis of America have indeed been notable. Not only has he broken up the disgraceful alliance that connected a part of the police force with the great underworld of law-breaking and evil-doing, but it also fell to him, in his capacity as a prosecuting officer, to make important inquiries into the charges of corruption and graft in connection with some of the State departments, particularly as regards the expenditure of vast sums of State money for the construction of highways.

The knowledge that Mr. Whitman thus



gained of State conditions will be of advantage in putting thorough efficiency into the public works of New York. He has shown his intentions already by selecting as head of the Public Works Department the retiring Chief of Staff of the United States Army. He is a ready and eloquent public speaker, a trained administrator, and a man of intense industry and vitality.

Mr. Whitman was born in Connecticut forty-six years ago,—the son of a Presbyterian minister. He was graduated from Amherst College, and came to New York, where he entered the law school of New York University. He was admitted to the bar in 1894, and eight years later was appointed assistant corporation counsel of New York City. In 1904 Mayor Low appointed Mr. Whitman a City Magistrate. He was elected President of the Board of Magistrates, and during his administration brought about many reforms in the procedure in the Magistrates' Courts. He was later appointed by Governor Hughes to the Court of General Sessions, in 1907. Upon the expiration of his term as judge, Mr. Whitman resumed the private practise of law, which he continued until he was elected District Attorney of the County of New York in the fall of 1909. He was reelected for a term of four years in November, 1913, on the tickets of all the prominent parties, so that his election was practically unanimous,—an occurrence unusual in the history of American politics.

#### FIVE NEW ENGLAND GOVERNORS

State tickets were elected, last fall, in every one of the New England commonwealths; and the early days of the present month will witness the induction into office of five new executives. The Governor of Massachusetts was continued in office by the voters. In New Hampshire and Connecticut the administrations pass from Democratic to Republican hands, while Maine inaugurates a Democrat,—for the second time in thirty-five years.

The election in Maine had been held in September. The new executive is the Hon. Oakley C. Curtis, who at the time of his election was serving as Mayor of Portland, the largest city in the State. The lower branch of the new legislature is Democratic, but the upper branch remains Republican. Throughout his campaign, Governor Curtis had maintained that the need of money for schools in Maine is sufficient to justify licensing the traffic in liquors in the pioneer Pro-

hibition State. But his party will not be in full control of the legislature, and it is doubtful if an attempt will be made to have the Prohibition amendment resubmitted to the people. Four years ago a proposal to discard prohibition failed by 750 votes.

New Hampshire inaugurates as Governor a successful young manufacturer, Mr. Rolland H. Spaulding, of Rochester. Everyone speaks well of Mr. Spaulding, as a man of ability and character. He was elected as a Republican, with progressive tendencies, and he will be supported by a Republican legislature.

Vermont inaugurates Mr. Charles W. Gates, who refused to become a candidate, but finally accepted the Republican nomination that was forced upon him, and which in his State is practically equivalent to an election. Mr. Gates had been serving with zeal and distinction as State Highway Commissioner, and he preferred to go on with the work of developing highways. As Governor he will be able, even more effectively, to encourage that movement.

Governor Walsh, of Massachusetts, has been retained in office by the voters, and he intends to proceed with the work of reconstructing the State departments. His triumph at the polls was particularly notable because he won over a distinguished Republican, former Congressman Samuel W. McCall. It is only fair to add, however, that Democratic success in Massachusetts is due in part to the fact that large numbers of former Republican voters continue to be attracted to the Progressive party.

A new Governor is inaugurated in Rhode Island, mainly because the Hon. Aram J. Pothier had persistently declined to be a candidate for a sixth term. His successor, also a Republican, is Mr. R. Livingston Beeckman, whose achievements as a popular Newport society leader had been supplemented by useful service, last year, in the State Senate.

Connecticut changes Governors, and changes party control, but nevertheless retains in the executive chair a former member of the State bench. The Hon. Marcus H. Holcomb, who succeeds Judge Baldwin as Governor, has just retired as Judge of the Superior Court. He has also been Attorney-General of the State. It is said that Judge Holcomb never acquiesced in his nomination by the Republicans, and would not participate actively in the campaign. There is no doubt, however, of his willingness,—now that the voters of the State have confirmed

the choice of his party,—to give to the tasks of a Governor the best that is in him.

#### IN THE MIDDLE WEST

In Ohio, a Republican, the Hon. Frank B. Willis, who is a member of the present national Congress, succeeds the popular Democratic Governor, James M. Cox. Mr. Willis was born in Ohio forty-two years ago; and was graduated from Ohio Northern University, where he later taught history, economics and law. He was a member of the Ohio legislature for two terms prior to his election to the Sixty-second Congress in 1910. The new Governor's position on various State issues is yet to be defined.

Governor Philipp's victory in Wisconsin was really won in the Republican primaries last September. After those had been held, there was little doubt of the result in November. There was an insistent demand for lower taxes and reduced State expenses; Emanuel Philipp, better than any other candidate, voiced that demand. He is a native of Wisconsin, fifty-three years

of age, and has been successively, a farmer, a school teacher, a telegraph operator, a railroad station agent, a train dispatcher, a lumber merchant, and the proprietor of the Union Refrigerator Company. Incidentally, he was for a time Police Commissioner for the city of Milwaukee. Mr. Philipp was elected Governor to bring about a definite result,—retrenchment in the State appropriations, which by the last legislature were so enormously swollen as to require a tax levy that roused the indignation of the whole State.

Wisconsin's neighbor, Minnesota, is likewise concerned about economy and efficiency in the State administration and the new Governor, Winfield S. Hammond, who is a Democratic Representative in Congress, is pledged to the reorganization of the executive departments on the lines proposed by the commission that has been at work on the problem for many months. Mr. Hammond was born in Massachusetts fifty-one years ago, was graduated from Dartmouth College, and became a teacher and lawyer in Minnesota. He has been a member of Congress since 1907. The Republican State of Minnesota has a way of choosing Democratic Governors with re-



GOV. OAKLEY C. CURTIS  
(Maine)

GOV. R. H. SPAULDING  
(New Hampshire)

GOV. CHARLES W. GATES  
(Vermont)



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GOV. FRANK B. WILLIS  
(Ohio)



GOV. MARCUS H. HOLCOMB  
(Connecticut)



GOV. R. LIVINGSTON BEECKMAN  
(Rhode Island)





GOV. EMANUEL PHILIPP  
(Wisconsin)

of the *Topeka Daily Capital*, to the Governorship. Forty-nine years of age, a native of Kansas, and a Republican from his youth up, the new Governor is one of the best-known men in the public life of the State. Governor Capper is owner of the *Nebraska Farm Journal* and the *Missouri Ruralist*, and has served as president of the Board of Regents of the Kansas Agricultural College. He belongs distinctly to the progressive wing of the Republican party in Kansas, but never followed White, Allen, and Murdock into the Progressive party movement.

Interest in the Colorado Governorship naturally centers in the incoming administration's policy with reference to the mining troubles. The new Republican Governor, George A. Carlson, has announced his program; he favors the creation of an Industrial Relations Board, in which shall be centered the powers now exercised by the State Labor Commissioner, the Public Utility Commissioner, the State Mine Commissioner and all other boards and bureaus whose duties relate to labor and labor questions,—all the members of this board to be appointed by the Governor. The plan has at least the merit of concentration. In the industrial war

markable frequency.

In Kansas the transition from newspaper management to active political leadership is easy. Cases in point are Victor Murdock, William Allen White, and Henry J. Allen, but the freshest instance of all is the election of Arthur Capper, proprietor

of the past two years, division of power was the chief cause of the State's impotence in maintaining law and order. There is also hope that such a board, possessing the confidence of the public, would be able to prevent or settle strikes in many instances.

#### THE SOUTHERN STATES

Turning to the South, we are reminded that, while six States in this section have chosen Governors this fall, the chief interest in the elections came at the primary contests held during the spring and summer months. The victor at the Democratic primaries in these States is perforce also the victor at the polls in November, owing to the negligible Republican vote in these communities.



GOV. ARTHUR CAPPER  
(Kansas)

The South continues to show preference for the surviving leaders of '61. So we find the old commonwealth of Georgia selecting as its chief

executive a fine example of the old guard of the Confederacy, the Hon. Nathaniel E. Harris, of Macon. Judge Harris's marked personality, as well as his important work in the educational field and on the bench, are enough to account for his success with the voters. Georgians as a whole seem to be satisfied with their choice of an executive for the next two years.

In the neighboring State of Alabama the chief political interest centered in the fight for United States Senator as between Oscar Underwood and Richmond P. Hobson, with prohibition brought in as an issue. The overshadowing nature of this



GOV. GEORGE A. CARLSON  
(Colorado)



GOV. WINFIELD S. HAMMOND  
(Minnesota)



GOV. CHARLES HENDERSON  
(Alabama)

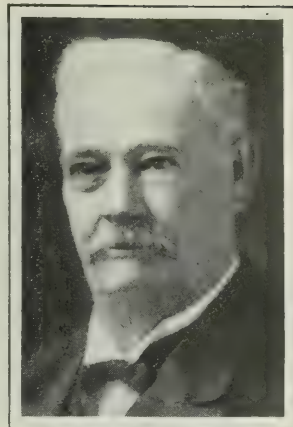
Charles Henderson, business man, merchant, and banker, has for years served as member and head of Alabama's Railroad Commission.

Texans wrestled with two principal issues in their campaign. One was prohibition, which was defeated; the other was the land question, which thus made its first appearance in recent American State elections. The success of James E. Ferguson at the gubernatorial primaries last July attracted wide attention. He is regarded as a successful banker and farmer. Mr. Ferguson's principal platform plank demanded the legal limitation of rent charges, his opponent proposing a plan of State loans to help tenant farmers

struggle did not, however, prevent the selection of a competent chief executive. Benjamin W. Hooper, turned this year to a Democrat, Thomas C. Rye, of Paris.



GOV. R. I. MANNING  
(South Carolina)



GOV. NAT E. HARRIS  
(Georgia)

Here again the liquor question was prominent, the platforms of both candidates declaring for the maintenance of the present temperance laws and for additional legislation along this line.

Although still in his forties, the new Governor of Oklahoma, Robert L. Williams, has already "done the State some service," having been a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1906-7 and having since then served for two terms on the Supreme bench as Chief Justice.

Governor Blease's "Sedan," as one newspaper called it (the Governor having been defeated for the United States Senatorship from South Carolina), carried with it the downfall of



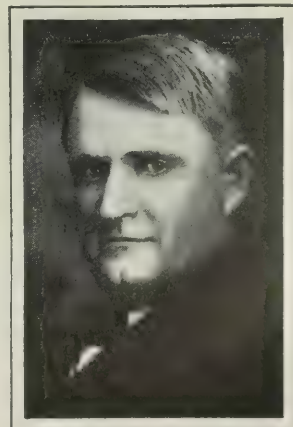
GOV. THOS. C. RYE  
(Tennessee)



GOV. JAMES E. FERGUSON  
(Texas)

purchase their land. his candidate for Governor.

Tennessee, The successful man was Richard I. Manning, of Sumter. Mr. Man-



GOV. R. L. WILLIAMS  
(Oklahoma)





GOV. JOHN B. KENDRICK  
(Wyoming)

GOV. EMMET D. BOYLE  
(Nevada)

ning has the distinction of being the third in his family to head the State government of South Carolina, both his grandfather and his uncle having served in that capacity. The chief issue in this State appears to have been "Bleaseism,"—as it has been called,—a distinguishing feature of which has been a liberal use of the pardoning power of the executive.

#### PACIFIC COAST STATES

Dr. James Withycombe, Republican, was chosen Governor of Oregon at the last election by what was said to be the largest plurality (30,000) ever given for the office in the history of the State. Dr. Withycombe has been director for many years of the Oregon Agricultural College Experiment Station. He is well known to the farmers. Oregon, like Colorado, was voted "dry" at the November election. Next to the unprecedented vote which re-elected Governor Johnson of California, the Oregon election was the most significant political event of the past year on the Pacific Coast.

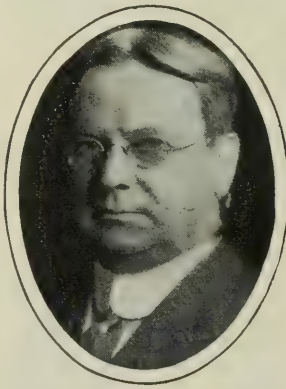
If one may judge from past achievements, the people of Nevada must be expecting many fine things from their new Governor, Mr. Emmet D. Boyle. He is a graduate of the engineering department of the State University, and reaches the executive chair at the age of

thirty-six, after conscientious and efficient service as State Engineer and as a member of the Tax Commission. In these offices he has become familiar with the natural resources of the State and with their possibilities if conserved and developed. Mr. Boyle is a Democrat, and succeeds a Republican.

The chief problems confronting Mr. Moses Alexander, the new Democratic Governor of Idaho, are the reduction of taxes and the reorganization of the State Treasurer's office. It is stated that the election turned upon the fact that the Republican State Treasurer, in the closing days of the campaign, "plead guilty to the embezzlement of State funds and was sent to the penitentiary."

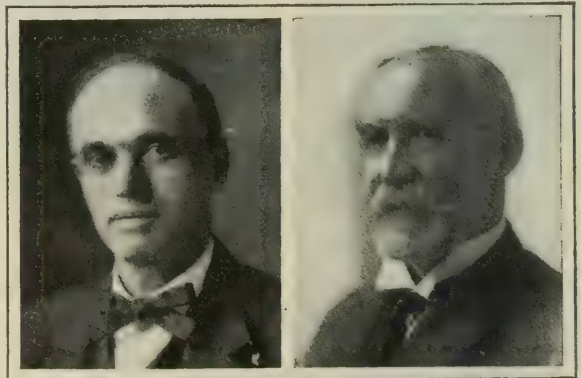
Mr. Alexander is a prominent clothing merchant of Boise. His associates in office are Republicans, and the Legislature is controlled by that party.

The new Governor of Wyoming is Mr. John B. Kendrick, a Democrat. He is a successful stockman, with large holdings of land in the northern part of the State. Entering politics six years ago, he was elected to the State Senate, and in 1913 was an unsuccessful candidate for the United States Senate. In the recent campaign he was endorsed by the Progressives as "the individual through whom the great-



GOV. HIRAM W. JOHNSON  
(California)

est measure of fulfilment of Progressive principles in Wyoming can be secured."



GOV. MOSES ALEXANDER  
(Idaho)

GOV. JAMES WITHYCOMBE  
(Oregon)

# NATIONAL DEFENSE

AS DISCUSSED BY THE PRESIDENT IN HIS MESSAGE, AND BY WAR AND NAVY DEPARTMENT OFFICIALS IN THEIR REPORTS

## I. PRESIDENT WILSON'S VIEWS

IT is natural that to many thoughtful persons in this country there should occur the possibility, however remote, that at some time the United States may be at war with a first-class power. It is also natural that some should seek to know whether or not we are in a condition of reasonable preparedness.

As the country had expected and desired, the President discussed at length the subject of national defense in the address which he delivered to the members of Congress on December 7.

He began by asking and answering "some very searching questions":

What is meant by being prepared? Is it meant that we are not ready upon brief notice to put a nation in the field, a nation of men trained to arms? Of course we are not ready to do that; and we shall never be in time of peace so long as we retain our present political principles and institutions. And what is it that it is suggested we should be prepared to do? To defend ourselves against attack? We have always found means to do that, and shall find them whenever it is necessary without calling our people away from their necessary tasks to render compulsory military service in times of peace.

After pointing out that we are at peace with all the world, that we are not a jealous people, and that we offer true friendship to all nations, President Wilson alludes to things which might legitimately be done for improvement in matters of defense without exposing us to the dangers of militarism:

We must depend in every time of national peril, in the future as in the past, not upon a standing army, nor yet upon a reserve army, but upon a citizenry trained and accustomed to arms. It will be right enough, right American policy, based upon our accustomed principles and practises, to provide a system by which every citizen who will volunteer for the training may be made familiar with the use of modern arms, the rudiments of drill and maneuver, and the maintenance and sanitation of camps. We should encourage such training and make it a means of discipline which our young men will learn to value. It is right that we should provide it not only, but that we should make it as attractive as possible, and so induce our young men to undergo it at such times as they can command a little freedom and can seek the physical development they need, for mere health's

sake, if for nothing more. Every means by which such things can be stimulated is legitimate, and such a method smacks of true American ideas. It is right, too, that the National Guard of the States should be developed and strengthened by every means which is not inconsistent with our obligations to our own people or with the established policy of our Government. . . .

More than this carries with it a reversal of the whole history and character of our polity. More than this, proposed at this time, permit me to say, would mean merely that we had lost our self-possession, that we had been thrown off our balance by a war with which we have nothing to do, whose causes cannot touch us, whose very existence affords us opportunities of friendship and disinterested service which should make us ashamed of any thought of hostility or fearful preparation for trouble.

The President regards a powerful navy as "our proper and natural means of defense," and believes that "we shall be strong upon the seas, in the future as in the past." He decries the fact, however, that even experts differ as to what kind of ships to construct.

## II. THE ARMY

In his annual report to the President, made public on December 10, Secretary of War Garrison treats of our military preparedness to the extent of five-sixths of his remarks. His contribution to the discussion stands out among others as furnishing a moderate, constructive plan for remedying a situation which he believes to be undesirable.

Mr. Garrison states, even more clearly than others had done, the present effective strength of our regular army. Of a total of 92,000 officers and men, 8000 are in the Quartermaster and Hospital Corps, 19,000 garrison the coast defenses, 19,000 belong to the non-combatant administrative and educational branches, 9500 are in the Philippines, 8000 in Hawaii, 2000 at Panama, 850 in China, 850 in Alaska, and 700 in Porto Rico.

Thus Secretary Garrison finds that we have in the whole United States a real fighting strength, in movable forces, of less than 31,000 officers and men.

## SECRETARY GARRISON'S RECOMMENDATIONS

After recommending the enlistment of 25,000 additional men in the regular army,



the Secretary of War discusses "the next necessity, which is absolutely imperative, and that is, the preparation of a reserve."

Reserves are men who have been retired from the army after a period of enlistment; and Secretary Garrison recognizes the fact that a reserve force can only be created if the conditions of enlistment are made attractive. He would establish a form of enlistment for one year (instead of four years, as at present), discharging into the reserve those who so desire and who have become proficient.

Opposition to such a plan is based chiefly upon the idea that one year or eighteen months is not a sufficient time in which to train a soldier. Secretary Garrison defends his suggestion, as follows:

It is a curious exhibition of mental operations to realize that those who make this argument and who have to acknowledge that without reserves we must depend upon volunteers, are constantly asserting that we can safely rely upon volunteers because they can be thoroughly trained in six months. It is furthermore true that by intensive military training, any young man of good health and average mentality can be made a serviceable soldier in twelve months, and, in fact, has been so made. . . . Even if there were doubt about it, it would not cause a different conclusion to be reached by a reasonable man, because we certainly would be better off with a reserve of men who had had one year's training than we are without any reserve at all and having to depend, as we do, upon men who have never had any training whatever.

#### GENERAL WOTHERSPOON'S PLAN

The technical head of our army is the Chief of Staff, who is charged among other things with the duty of reporting to the Secretary of War upon the condition of the forces under him, and of making recommendations relative thereto.

The report and recommendations of Major-General Wotherspoon, who became Chief of Staff on April 22, were prepared and made public at the time of his retirement on November 15. His recommendations go even farther than those of Mr. Garrison. He believes that:

Careful consideration of our needs would indicate the advisability and necessity for having at all times available at home and, in addition to the necessities in our foreign possessions, in the first line of our military establishment a mobile force of at least 500,000 thoroughly trained and thoroughly equipped fighting men. . . . It is also agreed that we should have, as a second line, a thoroughly equipped and trained force of organized militia of not less than 300,000 men.

To have 500,000 trained men available at all times, General Wotherspoon would establish a three-year enlistment, increase the

standing army to 205,000, and create a reserve organization. One-third of the regular army would be discharged each year into the reserve, and would be held subject to call for a period of five years.

#### THE MILITIA

General Wotherspoon does not lack appreciation of the value of the militia. But the reader of his report is impressed with the limitations of that branch of our military organization. Out of a total reported strength of 120,000, more than 70,000 can not qualify even as second-class riflemen, 38,000 failed to attend the required twenty-four drills of one hour each during the year, and 32,000 did not attend the annual camps of instruction. Furthermore, General Wotherspoon believes that in a whole year "not a single unit at its maximum strength marched a distance of ten miles fully equipped and armed."

#### A SHORTAGE OF OFFICERS

The problem of finding suitable men, and training them so that they might become officers in an enlarged or reserve or volunteer army, has occupied the attention of many authorities.

The views of Major-Gen. Leonard Wood, who preceded General Wotherspoon as Chief of Staff, are appropriate upon the subject of training officers, for he himself is not a West Point graduate, having come into the army as a surgeon. In a recent interview he spoke as follows:

As you know, for the past two summers we have conducted students' military instruction camps. To enter one of these camps applicants must be citizens of the United States between 18 and 30 years of age, of good moral character, physically qualified, and students in, or recent graduates of, universities, colleges, and the senior class at high schools. The results have been extremely encouraging. During the past summer we had four camps. . . .

Take the Burlington camp as an example. We had there 350 students, and at the end of their five weeks of training 129 were recommended to fill lieutenantcies and captaincies of volunteers.

General Wood also made suggestions which, he believes, would result in attracting more students to these instruction camps. He has also outlined a plan whereby graduates of private military schools of high grade might be given commissions as second lieutenants in the regular army, for one year, afterward becoming reserve officers.

#### LACK OF BIG GUNS AND AMMUNITION

Besides a shortage of men and officers, there is alleged a shortage of field guns and

ammunition with which to equip an enlarged army. A paragraph on this subject in General Wood's last report as Chief of Staff is particularly interesting, because it was written and published several months before the beginning of the European conflict.

In addition to the shortage of field artillery organizations for the regular army, attention is again invited to the very alarming shortage in field artillery, guns and ammunition for the militia and volunteers, and to the fact that this class of material cannot be made quickly, but must be prepared in time of peace. No amount of money or effort will serve to overcome this shortage without the expenditure of such time as might be fatal to our chances in case of war.

That conditions in this respect have improved during the past year is indicated by the report of the Chief of Ordnance, just issued, in which reference is made to enlarged output from the Government's powder mills and gun shops, and to a "gratifying" increase in the appropriation for field artillery. At this increased rate, the project for field artillery "will be complete about 1920."

The report of the Chief of Ordnance indicates that there is on hand, or covered by funds already appropriated, a sufficient quantity of rifles and ammunition for an enlarged regular army, for the organized militia, and for volunteers.

### III. THE NAVY

President Wilson's statement, in his message to Congress, that a powerful navy is our proper and natural means of defense, caused many to await with aroused curiosity the annual report of the Secretary of the Navy, made public on December 12.

#### SECRETARY DANIELS' REPORT

Mr. Daniels points to the sudden despatch of our fleet to Mexican waters, last April, as furnishing ample proof of the preparedness of our navy. We quote his tribute:

Within twenty-four hours after the directions to sail were flashed from the wireless at Arlington to the commander-in-chief the gray fighters were ready, and the giant ships slipped swiftly seaward and hurried to the waters of the Gulf. . . . It showed the country that the navy is always ready,—it lives in a state of preparedness,—and that when the emergency arises every man in the navy and the marine corps shows such enthusiasm and resourcefulness as to quicken the pride of their countrymen in them.

"Ship for ship and man for man," our navy is equal if not superior to any in the world, in the opinion of Secretary Daniels.

He recommends the construction of two new battleships,—after calling attention to the fact that three were authorized last year, and mentioning the "necessity for economy, which the rigors of foreign war have imposed."

#### ADMIRAL DEWEY'S ADVICE

Secretary Daniels invited attention to the report of the General Board of the Navy Department, as entitled to great weight, and he made it a part of his own report. Among other things, the Board's duty is to advise the Secretary of the Navy respecting the proper number and types of ships; and the report referred to embodies that advice. It bears the signature of Admiral Dewey.

The General Board urges the construction of four battleships, and distinctly states that we are deficient ten battleships as respects the recommendations of the Board made in 1903, "after mature consideration of our national policies and interests, and of those of the other leading naval nations of the world."

#### SHIPS USELESS WITHOUT TRAINED MEN

That there exists a shortage of men to man properly the warships that we have, as well as a lack of reserve to bring the crews up to full strength in the event of war, is the opinion of the General Board, which we quote:

The General Board cannot too strongly urge upon the department the necessity of using its best endeavors to carry out the repeated recommendations of the General Board, made from year to year, to provide the fleet with a personnel, active list and trained reserve, equal to the manning of the fleet for war.

In the opinion of the General Board this is a matter of even more serious import than that of construction, for it cannot be too often repeated that ships without a *trained* personnel to man and fight them are useless for the purposes of war. The training needed for the purpose is long and arduous, and cannot be done after the outbreak of war.

The Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, Rear-Admiral Victor Blue, has estimated that there is an "actual shortage of men to man all vessels serviceable for war purposes of 4565,"—this in view of the fact that for the first time in many years the navy enlistment is up to the limit prescribed by Congress, and the service has a waiting list.

Regarding officers, Admiral Blue points out that more than half the entire number are of or below the second lowest rank,— "an abnormal condition, which should be remedied." The matter of promotion, too, "is a serious question, and becomes worse each year."



# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## HOW RUSSIA HAS GONE DRY

TO those who know Russia as she was before the war it is difficult to conceive of her without vodka. One might as well try to imagine Germany without sauerkraut or Italy without macaroni. The picture of a city or village minus reeling, staggering figures of both sexes and all those comic and tragic scenes which are the usual accompaniments of drunkenness fails to call up to the mind what is most characteristically Russian. In Russian life drunkenness was not merely an incident, not even merely a great evil. It was of the very essence of that life, bulking large in almost every phase of it. The prominent position occupied by drunkenness in Russian realistic literature, as in the novels of Dostoyevsky and Gorky, for example, is not purely an accident. To portray the conditions of Russian life faithfully was impossible without taking account of alcoholism, which held more than half the population of the Empire in its deathly grip.

And all this is ended now, swept away as if by the hand of a magician. One day, upon the declaration of the war, the Russian Government said, "Let there be no vodka!" And there was no vodka. One hundred and seventy million people who consumed more spirituous liquor proportionately than any other nation suddenly stopped drinking and became total abstainers. The drink-shops throughout the vast empire were closed, all distilleries shut down. Nowhere else in the world could such a result have been attained; nowhere else could the liquor traffic have been stopped so effectively and in so brief a time. Twenty-four hours after the order went forth from the government not a drop of strong drink was to be had in all the length and breadth of the Czar's domain.

It seems like a miracle to us in America, who know how little prohibition actually prohibits, but the explanation is quite simple. The Russian Government has a monopoly of the entire drink traffic. It not only owned all the retail vodka shops, but was largely engaged in its production. The private dis-

tilleries were wholly dependent upon the government for their market. They had no other customer. Thus, when the Czar determined to keep his subjects sober, they had no choice but to obey. The government's intention evidently was to keep the drink-shops closed only for a short time, in order to facilitate the concentration and mobilization of troops. But once the people had a taste of real prohibition, the Czar's administration found that it was not easy to return to its old ways and resume its profitable business. The people rose up as one man, demanding the continuance of prohibition. Peasants who had been hard drinkers before joined in a general enthusiasm that greeted this movement. The press did its best to uphold the people, and the government, which needed the nation's sympathy as never before, was forced to capitulate.

The result has been a regenerated and revolutionized Russia. Crime has been diminished 40 per cent., or even more. Wife-beating has ceased almost entirely. Children who had never seen their fathers sober and always feared them now beheld them with astonishment and asked their mothers, "Will papa always be so?" In conversation the wonderful change that has come over Russia through her sobriety takes precedence even over the war, especially among women.

Our country is passing through an epoch fraught with the greatest significance [writes K. Vorobyov in the *Petrograd Riech*]. The spiritual elevation the people have experienced since the declaration of the war, added to the sobriety that began at the same time, has wrought a profound change in the life of the country right before our eyes. The stoppage of drink has revolutionized the Russians psychologically, economically, and socially. The results of the change are already apparent throughout the empire, especially in the villages. The Russian village in this brief period has been so transformed that it is irre recognizable.

A priest in the government of Simbirsk writes in answer to a series of questions by the Bureau of Statistics: "It is difficult to express in words the transformation that has taken place in our villages on account of the prohibition of liquor. All our peasants have begun to dress decently;

they have become industrious, as it were,—more rational and sensible. I have been told personally by peasants who used to be addicted to drink that they welcomed the new way of life, and it was evident that they meant what they said. I know one peasant, for instance, who always went about drunk. He used to take the last sack of flour he had to the liquor shop, and the eggs as soon as the hens laid them. It is a pleasure to see this fellow now putting up a new gate to his yard, and sitting in front of his house in the evening quietly conversing with his wife about the household and the work that must be done on the farm. In all the years I can remember, I never saw the wife's face as it is now, without any blue marks. I could mention numerous other cases in which a like change has been effected. They all go soberly about their work, praying and hoping the sale of vodka and wine will never again be permitted, and the happy life begun for the people will never again be sullied by the curse of drink."

"The prohibition of the sale of vodka," writes another correspondent, "has had the most beneficial effect upon the peasants and the workmen. All the money they earn they use to improve their farms. No ugly, indecent songs are heard in the village any more; no drunken squabbles in the peasants' houses; no coarse roistering. The vil-

lage is quiet on Sundays and holidays. There is not a single drunken person to be seen, and there are no fights. The women and children bless the authorities for stopping the sale of liquor."

Financially, the saving is so great that hope is expressed in Russia that it will compensate to a large extent for the cost of the war. At peasants' weddings, for example, no less than \$70 used to be spent for wine and vodka. No wonder all Russians hailed the measure with such unprecedented enthusiasm, and no wonder some regard it almost as the advent of the millennium.

"We don't need politicians any more to keep the peace," says one correspondent. "Every citizen has become his own guardian of the peace. If the drink-shops will remain closed permanently the prisons will be empty, the insane asylums will be without inmates, the police will have nothing to do, the criminal courts will have no one to try, and the physicians will have no one to cure."

## AERIAL WARFARE AND INTERNATIONAL LAW

IN the measure that the aircraft became a factor in warfare it became imperative to establish a new code of law governing its area of operation. In a second article in *Samtiden* (Christiania) the Norwegian lawyer, T. Falck Andersen, discusses this interesting subject.

The airship has become indispensable as a means of reconnoitering the positions of the enemy. It is feared as an offensive weapon, but its usefulness in the service of peaceful exploits has also been discussed. The French in particular have made extensive trials to test the proposition of the Dutch sanitary officer Movy to employ the airship for the transport of wounded. The well-known French firm, Deperdussin, has constructed an aircraft for this specific purpose. No dissenting voice has yet been heard as to the possibility of removing wounded and sick from the field of battle by this means as soon as the machines were protected by regulations in accord with the Geneva convention. The French author, Dr. Charles L. Julliot, has written on the subject in his book, "*Aéro-nefs sanitaires et Convention de la Croix-Rouge*." However, it is as a direct participant in modern warfare that authorities on international law have sought to regulate the radius of action of the aircraft.

The writer goes on to review the use of the balloon in the Franco-Prussian war, when there ascended a total of sixty-four balloons during the siege of Paris, carrying 158 persons. Five of these balloons fell into the hands of the Germans. The appearance of these craft was the first step in bringing international law into application for the treatment of the passengers. The Germans feared they were trying to convey reports on the position of the besieging army, yet they were fully aware that existing regulations were inadequate in this particular respect. In November of 1870 Bismarck, therefore, despatched a note to the French Government through the American Ambassador, Washburn.

The question regarding legal protection of aircraft came up at the international conference at Brussels in 1874, where a decision was reached as to the circumstances under which aerial navigators would be regarded as spies. Secrecy or false pretense in gathering information was cause for punishment. Military men flying over the position of the enemy were not to be considered as spies, and, if caught, were to be prisoners of war and to enjoy all the privileges of such prisoners. Civilians carrying private letters over the line were also exempt.



In the first Hague Peace Conference in 1899, when the use of the aircraft for offensive purposes came up for discussion, it was harder to come to a settlement. Frenchmen were sure that by the aid of the aeroplane they would be able to annihilate a whole English fleet. However, "idealism in war has its limits." It was due to the representative of the United States, Captain Crozier, that a time limit of five years was imposed for throwing projectiles or explosive materials from aircraft. The declaration was in force for two or more belligerents, but expired if another power allied itself to one of the warring nations.

At the second Hague Conference, in 1907,

England proposed that the same terms should be extended to the third conference. Twenty-eight states voted in favor, eight against, among them Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Russia. Nevertheless, if aircraft proceed to the attack, they are, according to Article 27, cautioned to use care in the protection of buildings dedicated to worship, art, science, charity, etc. The same article prescribes also that the officer in command should in some way give notice of the commencement of the bombardment.

In conclusion the writer briefly mentions that neutral nations are subject to the same rules. They are called upon to maintain their neutrality in the air.

## CARING FOR THE WOUNDED IN WAR

**A**MID the dreadful welter of carnage and its attendant agony which spells modern warfare one ray of brightness appears in the universal gloom in the shape of the highly organized efficiency of the Red Cross Service, which waits upon battle. *Die Umschau*, of Berlin, prints in a recent issue an admirable description of its activities from the pen of Professor Rupprecht, one of the chief organizers of the German Military Hospital Service, of which we give an abstract:

The stretcher-bearers of the infantry—four to each company—who bear the Red Cross symbol on the arm, when a battle is on hand gather at the end of the battalion (sixteen men with four stretchers) and then proceed to the Infantry Sanitation Car. As soon as the "bandaging camp" is made ready . . . they go to the front with stretchers and knapsacks in order to be ready to give aid to the wounded as soon as possible. Musicians and others are employed as assistant stretcher-bearers. These wear a red band on the sleeve but do not come under the provisions of the Geneva Treaty.

Similar arrangements are made for the cavalry. The so-called "bandaging camp" is for the purpose of gathering the wounded and examining and classifying them. It should be both protected and accessible, and if possible near a water supply. At the end of a battle it is the duty of the troops to search trenches, woods, houses, etc., for the wounded, protect them against plunderers and carry them to the bandaging camp, as also to bury the dead.

At the bandaging camp the surgeons and their assistants must revive and examine the men and make them ready for transport. Operations are

seldom practicable or necessary here. The chief concern is to bandage wounds of bones, joints, and arteries carefully. . . . Severe hemorrhages usually stop of themselves, on which account it is seldom desirable to bind the limb tightly above the wound. The wound itself must never be touched, washed, or probed. After the clothing is removed or cut away it must merely be covered with the contents of the bandage package.

Every soldier carries two of these packages in a pocket on the lower front corner of his left coat-tail. Each package contains a gauze bandage enclosed in a waterproof cover. Each bandage, which is four meters long and seven centimeters wide, is saturated with sublimate and rolled up. About twenty-five centimeters from the front end there is sewed to this bandage a gauze compress saturated with sublimate and of a red color. This compress is seven centimeters wide, thirteen centimeters long, and one centimeter thick. It is thus arranged so that the bandage can be taken hold of with both hands without touching the red compress. On the inner side of the cover these directions are printed:

The red portion of the bandage and the wound itself must *never* be touched by the fingers! Take hold with both hands at the points to right and left marked "*here*,"—hold up the hands and stretch them apart, apply the red strip to the wound, wind the bandage around, and fasten it.

It is strongly impressed upon the stretcher-bearers and all assistants that cases having wounds in the abdomen are not transportable and must on no account be given food or drink; also that bleeding usually stops of itself. They are taught, too, that touching, washing, or probing the wound is injurious,



GERMAN RED CROSS CARRYING A WOUNDED SOLDIER AFTER A STREET BATTLE IN POLAND

and that only *dry* bandages must be placed on the wound,—never those that are damp or impervious.

The wounded who are capable of marching leave their ammunition, except for a few cartridges, at the bandaging camp, are provided if need be with a simple protective bandage, and march first to the nearest "camp for the slightly wounded," or to the nearest "resting-camp" [*etappenort*]. The rest of the wounded are removed as soon as possible directly to the field hospitals or "lazarets." If obliged to remain for a while before removal they are protected by portable tents, wind-screens, etc. . . . If it is impossible to carry the wounded along in a retreat they are left in care of the hospital staff under the protection of the Red Cross.

In case of a big battle a sanitation company remains near the bandaging camp. Every army corps has three of these companies, which, together with the twelve field lazarets of the corps, form a sanitation battalion. Each sanitation company comprises a commander with two subordinate officers, thirty-six soldiers, one toll-keeper, and the necessary grooms for the horses. It also contains one chief surgeon with eight subordinates, one apothecary, one bicyclist, 208 stretcher-bearers, and eight military nurses. It is provided with forty horses and thirteen wagons: one for provisions, two pack-wagons with tent, two sanitation wagons, eight transport wagons for the wounded (each containing seven or nine stretchers). In each stretcher is a pocket for bandages.

As soon as it is apparent that the troops

will remain in one locality for some length of time the smaller bandaging camps or stations are supplemented by a chief bandaging station some distance in the rear, and if possible, near a highway and near houses. At this spot there are arranged places for the entry and exit of the wagons carrying the wounded, for the unloading of the wounded, for the dying and the dead, for cooking, and a "park" for wagons and horses.

The surgeons work in two divisions: those who receive and those who bandage. The chief employ of the former is to divide the men into those who can march, those who can be transported, and those who cannot bear transportation (e. g., having wounds in the abdomen). The wound-chart of the first is white, of the second white with one red stripe at the side, of the third white with two red stripes. . . . The first are sent in troops to assemblage stations for the lightly wounded, the second to the field lazarets constructed farther in the rear, the third are treated in the nearest lazaret. In cases of death the identification tag and cause of death are recorded by the toll-master, who also takes charge of letters, money, and valuables. . . .

Each field lazaret is capable of caring for 200 men, but this capacity may be extended by making use of local aid. Each is under control of the chief surgeon, and the remaining *personnel* comprises one staff and four upper or assistant surgeons, one upper apothecary, three inspectors, three subordinate officers, one bicyclist, one cook, one apothecary's assistant (for manual labor), nine sanitation subordinate officers, fourteen military nurses, twenty-one officers and soldiers for transportation, nine riding and eighteen draft horses, and nine wagons.

The supplies carried by these field-lazarets are very comprehensive, including tents,



straw mattresses and woolen blankets, lighting materials, clothing and linen, tools, cooking utensils, soap, writing materials, drugs and medical appliances, sterilization ovens, bandages, instruments, and an oper-

ating-table. As fast as possible the patients treated are sent home on furlough or removed to permanent military hospitals. The very perfection of this system but deepens the tragic irony that occasions it.

## MAKING A DOCTOR OF THEOLOGY AT LOUVAIN

A PLEASANTLY written, intimately reminiscent article on life and study at the University of Louvain is contributed to the *Catholic World* by Dr. William P. H. Kitchin, an alumnus of that now world-famous institution, the buildings of which were destroyed by the German bombardment.

Dr. Kitchin speaks affectionately of the customs of the students and refers to many of the professors of his time by name. He describes the conferring of the theological doctorate degree as always marking a gala day. The coveted distinction demanded six years of post-graduate work. To quote his words:

The whole professional staff in cap and gown would assemble at the *College du Saint-Esprit*, which adjoined the *Halles*. The Cardinal of Malines, with all his suffragan bishops, headed the procession; then came the Rector and his mace-bearers, the Doctors of Divinity and their colleagues, clerical and lay. Everyone displayed all the badges of honor, both academic and civil, that they could muster, and took care, if I may so

speak, to appear in full war-paint. Arrived at the *Aula Maxima* of the university, the candidate for the doctorate was placed in a high pulpit facing all the notabilities of Belgium, and hundreds of curious eyes as well; and for three hours he had to defend a hundred theses against the keenest reasoners and most erudite theologians of the Netherlands. Rival professors of contending schools of thought would assemble fairly spoiling for a fight, and determined, if the wit of man could accomplish it, to put that budding doctor in a quandary. There the Jesuit Father De San, reputed the keenest metaphysician of his day, would come to let the *universitaires* see that there were more secrets in heaven and earth than were dreamed of in their philosophy; or the Dominican Father DeMuncky would object on the crucial theses of Thomism; or Abbé Cauchie or Van Hoonacker would propose difficulties from Church history or Scripture respectively. It was really an intellectual treat to hear two accomplished word-fencers thus contending, to witness the swift parry and thrust of answering syllogism and subsumption. But so well trained are the candidates for this crown of academic honors, and so many years have they spent in arduous study, that failure is practically unknown amongst them. After the mental joust is over, the new doctor is invested with cap and ring, solemnly welcomed by the ac-



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THE CHARRED WALLS OF LOUVAIN UNIVERSITY (GERMAN CAVALRY IN THE FOREGROUND)

colade amongst his elder brethren, and a grand banquet, at which his health is enthusiastically drunk, terminates most agreeably the day's celebration.

Louvain, as an academic institution, com-

bined the systems of both English and continental universities, inasmuch as a student might live in a college if he chose, or board with some of the townspeople while following the course of lectures.

## WINTER, THE GENERAL FOE OF ARMIES

THAT severe cold greatly increases the suffering of troops engaged in active warfare is obvious to everyone, and the click of the knitting-needles to be heard over all the land in public places of amusement, as well as by the private hearthstone, is a practical recognition of that fact. But there are other less obvious impediments to warfare created by wintry conditions. More than thirty years ago a well-known German general declared that a book on "Seasonal Tactics" might as properly be written as those on the tactics of weapons, and of geographical conditions.

In the November issue of the *Deutsche Revue* an unsigned article by a veteran of the Franco-Prussian war recounts the difficulties that arise when the Frost King holds sway.

To begin with, the precious hours of daylight are much fewer, and even these may be shortened by overcast skies and heavy fogs. Soft snow and mud seriously impede marching, and at times it is impossible to take cross-country cuts, even single horsemen having

great difficulty in crossing the frozen ridges of plowed fields or stubble. Moreover, even regular highways may become so slippery that they endanger both man and horse, and in hilly country such conditions make it necessary to haul heavy artillery up steep ascents by man-power. Cold head-winds also greatly impede progress.

The necessity of bringing the troops under cover enforces long marches at the end of the day's work and again at its beginning, and therefore makes extra demands on energy.

The interesting point is made that the army of defense is aided by the lateness of attack on the offensive side, the slowness and difficulty of its movement, and the shortness of the time at its disposal before nightfall.

The early dark hinders the offense from carrying out its plans completely and from utilizing any advantage won by following it up energetically. Night battles become frequent. The defense seeks to regain what it has lost by day, the offense to make use of the long nights to win what it could not achieve in the daytime. Then,





too, the need of getting warmed-up makes the troops more enterprising.

All sorts of constructive work,—fortification building, the erection of stations for telegraphs, telephones, and wireless, etc.,—is naturally much more difficult in frozen ground. General von der Goltz of the German Army is said to have recommended many years ago that in view of possible winter campaigns provision should be made in quantity of warm winter clothing, materials for the building of barracks, making double tents, etc. Another important preventive of suffering and the consequent diminished efficiency is to provide plenty of good hot food for the men. The writer makes another point which may rouse controversy. He says:

Warming drinks, even those containing some

alcohol, are to be recommended. Even the anti-alcohol advocates will perhaps forego these demands for total abstinence from the view-point that the use of alcohol in winter in moderate amount and under certain conditions is the lesser evil. Another sort of protection against cold is provided by warm underwear. On this account it is necessary that the field-uniform fit comfortably and not too tightly. . . . *Warm feet* are very important. Wrapping in blotting paper or soft newspapers is a help to this end. Here, too, a wide shoe is needful for the sake of motion and to allow, too, for the insertion of an insole of felt or straw. Rubber soles are good, too.

Finally, the writer adds:

And don't think it's only the troops in Russia that need these things! We old fellows who were in France over four and forty years ago know that it can be infernally cold there too. And to make matters worse the usual hearth-fire to be found in France affords a poor chance to warm oneself up.

## TESTING THE CLOTH FOR GERMAN UNIFORMS

PART of that perfection of preparation which has long been the boast of the German Army lies in the thoroughness with which all goods and munitions are tested for quality. Such tests are the surest guarantee for effectiveness in time of war. A new process for determining the durability of the cloth used in uniforms has recently been invented which seems to give more reliable results than the usual one of the dynamometer. It was described in a recent number of the *Zeitschrift für Angewandte Chemie (Journal of Applied Chemistry)* by Mr. A. Kertess, superintendent of the department of dyeing in one of the largest German dye works. We quote from an abstract in *Die Umschau* (Frankfort):

The testing of cloth for its firmness or durability has heretofore been done by the dynamometer. The figures thus obtained represent the results of the controls. Thus, for example, in fabrics for military use it is determined what degrees of firmness and of "stretch" there should be in each material, and every quartermaster's department and every cloth manufacturer tests the products of the looms in accordance.

It has been found in practise, however, according to Mr. Kertess, that while dynamometer tests of yarn for strength and stretch are absolutely reliable, they do not always give a correct idea of the wearing quality of the fabric. This is proved by the fact that officials who have passed goods as

irreproachable by this test have later made complaint that the clothes made from it did not wear well. This has been particularly the case with the "field-gray" uniforms.

This fault in the dynamometer tests has been observed for some years, and led various governments to seek a further test by a "shaving" or scraping machine, the idea being that this test would more nearly approximate the results obtained in usage.

The first government which undertook to test cloth by shaving machines was the Dutch; rotating "polishing" machines were employed. The method was later abandoned, and when I was in Holland, some years ago, and inquired concerning it, I was told that it had been used rather to see how the cloth rubbed off than to test wearing quality. Later the Swiss made similar experiments, but gave them up because it was found that the apparatus gave false figures.

Since then I have occupied myself with this question, starting from the view-point that if it were possible to give all the cloths to be tested *similar surfaces* to begin with, then correct results must be obtainable.

Various attempts were made to procure uniformity of surface by such means as pressing, roughening, soaking, etc., with little success. These physical means failing to accomplish the desired result, chemical treatment was tried. The cloth is first treated with hydrochloric acid to remove all fats and mineral salts clinging to its fibers, and then with alcohol to secure a thorough saturation.

Thus an entirely new surface is obtained of the required degree of uniformity in all samples.

When cloth thus treated is subjected to the test of the shaving machine, excellent comparative results are obtained. The tests are always made in comparison with a given type-fabric, and the quality of the cloth is estimated by the number of revolutions before the cloth tears. The greatest difficulty to be overcome was in the manufacture of suitable rollers for the shaving machine. The first trials were made with rollers which worked like files, but these very quickly wore out.

The best results have been obtained with rollers having sharply cut grooves by which the shaving was effected. Moreover, specially prepared carbondum rollers were employed, which were found

to remain intact even after four or five months' use.

Application has been made for a patent on the process. In answer to the question to what extent it is useful in testing different fabrics the author says that at present it is only applicable to *felted* cloths, such as are chiefly used for military needs, but that it is probable that it may later be so modified as to furnish a satisfactory test for thinner fabrics.

It is pleasant to think that though the invention was stimulated by the arts of war, it is at least equally applicable to those of peace.

## SVEN HEDIN IN THE WESTERN THEATER OF WAR



DR. SVEN HEDIN, THE DISTINGUISHED SWEDISH EXPLORER, WHO HAS BEEN AT THE FRONT WITH THE GERMAN ARMY

was much noted in Sweden and was considered a special, honorable distinction conferred upon him by the Kaiser himself.

In a letter to the *Sydsvenska Dagbladet* (Malmö) Sven Hedin relates some of his impressions. He traveled by automobile from Berlin through Frankfurt and Coblenz and speaks of the tremendous transports of men, horses, and material moving westward. German thoroughness is noted in everything being ready up to safety-pins, bandages, and ounces of medicine in the thousand of cases in an ambulance train. On the journey from Berlin to the artillery positions under fire he found, in spite of the great strain, everybody quietly attending to duty. From a point of observation in front of the artillery he spoke by telephone with a major in one of the trenches hardly half a kilometer from the outer French lines. The officer spoke quietly and even with a sense of humor.

Sven Hedin goes on to say:

The troops and provisions were brought up over fifty different military routes into Belgium and France, but there was also a continuous stream in the opposite direction—the wounded and the prisoners. I have seen how the prisoners were cared for and have spoken with many hundreds of French prisoners. They spoke without exception of kind and humane treatment. They receive the same healthy food as the German soldiers. To-day I have been in an encampment where the French prisoners cooked their own food. They had requested more vegetables and less meat and the request was granted. At one time I conversed with some prisoners that had just been brought in. They were deeply depressed and asked me what fate they had to expect, showing their wounds and speaking with tears in their eyes about their wives and children. I told them they might first expect

THE well-known Swedish scientist and explorer, Dr. Sven Hedin, is one of the few foreign correspondents who have enjoyed the privilege of being with the German army almost from the beginning of the war. His journey to the German front in France



a kettle of boiling soup and a fresh loaf of bread; then a physician who would examine and bandage their wounds. Their imprisonment would not be in idleness, but with work, and after peace they would be restored to their country and their families.

It was touching to see the joy in the faces of those poor soldiers, who had spent weeks in the cold and humid trenches dressed in their red trousers and blue coats. With dismay I have seen in foreign papers that French prisoners were badly treated by the Germans. Upon my honor I will state that this is a lie. Behind the firing line the life of every Frenchman is out of range, as far as human power may save it. Out there in the rifle pits German and French soldiers kill each other, but here behind the lines the German soldiers are offering their antagonists cigarettes and show them chivalrous comradeship. No, there is no hatred in Germany against France. Germany would never have touched a French city nor sent a bullet over the French border if she had not been forced to do so. France was driven into the catastrophe, and is bleeding for its friends in the triple entente.

Who is responsible that the revenge idea has been kept alive these forty-four years? Do they really think that German statesmanship will be looking forward to another fifty-year period of French armament and similar national hatred? Is it possible that Germany, this time by means of force, will secure a lasting guarantee of security westward? Where is the French patriot who

has the courage, before it is too late, to go before his people and tell them that they must extend the hand of friendship to Germany? Alas, France is contented to be cajoled by her "friends," and does not consider that Germany, who is fighting for her existence, will continue the struggle to the last man and horse. It is not difficult to discern the outcome here at the front.

The Swedish writer goes on to say that Germany, having raised a loan of 5,000,000 marks, can renew it any time. Moreover, this immense sum will stay in the country. A few days ago there was pay-day with that part of the army. The following day 250,000 marks were sent home.

I have seen the Kaiser out here and I know that he stands on his post as an example for his whole army, and I know how he is adored by his troops. I can state on my honor that the Kaiser used all means in his power to prevent the war. History will give him right, even if men do not want to understand him now. I am hearing the thunder of the guns. I have heard it for weeks. Out there the soldiers are falling, carrying the fate of history at the point of their bayonets with glory. In cosy chambers, far from the fire, statesmen are sitting that have the responsibility for the war. Upon them, in due time, will come the blood of the dead and the curse of the bereft.

## BERNARD SHAW'S "COMMON SENSE ABOUT THE WAR"

THE remarkable discussion of the war by George Bernard Shaw, which he calls "Common Sense About the War," has occasioned much comment on both sides of the Atlantic. As republished in this country, it occupied between six and eight newspaper pages, but its points as recapitulated by the author himself may be stated in very brief space.

It is Mr. Shaw's view that the victory must be won by England and France, leaving to Russia the task of conquering Austria if she can. But if Russia's aid is required to defeat Germany, western European liberalism would be itself defeated. In the second place, since England and France will both have to live with Germany after the war, there must be no undue humiliation of Germany when the peace is made, nor should anything be done to perpetuate hatred between England and Germany or between France and Germany.

In the peace negotiations no claim must be set up for any moral superiority on the part of either England or Germany. Both have sinned. Even in the case of the alleged violation of Belgian neutrality England's

skirts are not clear because she admitted that she would have gone to war in defense of France, whether the Germans came through Belgium or not.

Militarism as a disease afflicts England and France not less than Prussia. All the European powers have been equally guilty in the past. As for atrocities in this war, there is no trustworthy evidence that the Germans have been guilty of anything worse than what is generally accepted as belonging to military usage. The attack on the Rheims Cathedral was justified by the fact that the French had used the roof as a place of observation. Finally, the war must end not only militarism, but secret diplomacy and every form of autocracy, and show the world that these outworn institutions are at last replaced by democracy.

Of all the great authors in the belligerent countries who have written on the war so far there is only one who comes near to Shaw in his general condemnation of all who were responsible in bringing about the war, irrespective of what country they belong to. It is Romain Rolland, the foremost French novelist, author of "Jean-Christophe." To

him as to Shaw the war is a sheer outrage upon the people, and Russian militarism no better than Prussian militarism. Writing in the *Journal de Genève*, he says:

We Western nations have no cause to wage war with each other. In spite of all the statements in the press who uphold the minority interested in maintaining international hatreds, we French brothers, English brothers, German brothers do not feel any hatred towards one another. Our people want only peace and liberty. Who brought about this misfortune in Europe? Who brought the people into such a desperate position that they must either kill their opponents or die? Who if not the governments? That is to say, in my opinion, the three great criminals, the three

hungry birds of prey, the ruinous policy of the Austrian Government, the all-grabbing czarism, and ferocious Prussia.

The enemy is not across the frontiers. He dwells within in every country, and not one nation has the manhood to fight him. The enemy—it is the thousand-headed monster Imperialism, it is the haughty desire for dominion, eager to swallow up everything, and bent upon suppressing all greatness based upon liberty. Every nation to a larger or smaller degree is groaning under the burden of Imperialism, whatever its form, whether military, financial, feudal, republican, social or spiritual. Like a hyena it sucks the best blood of Europe. Against this Imperialism the free people of all nations will arise as soon as the war ends, and with the device of Voltaire will sweep it out of existence.

## POULTNEY BIGELOW AND THE KAISER

THERE is at least one American now living who was a schoolboy friend of the German Kaiser at Potsdam at the period of the Franco-German War of 1870-71. Poultney Bigelow, in after years the author of the "History of the German Struggle for Liberty," was then, like the young grandson of Emperor William I, in charge of a tutor at Potsdam, and for twenty-five years the relations between the German scion of royalty and the son of our former Minister to France were most cordial. Mr. Bigelow, as is well known, was the favored guest at most of the German court functions, including those of a military nature.

As he states in a letter to Dr. Paul Carus, the editor of the *Open Court* (Chicago), which is published in the December issue of that magazine, Mr. Bigelow blames only himself for the termination of that friendship in 1896. He declares that William II has consistently followed ideals of the purest and loftiest character and that those ideals have led him to conclusions which he (Mr. Bigelow) respects, but cannot share. He characterizes the Kaiser as "a Hohenzollern through and through and a gentleman into the bargain—which can be said of very few of that illustrious line."

It is well known that Mr. Bigelow's book, the "History of the German Struggle for Liberty," was not altogether pleasing to the Berlin court. As Mr. Bigelow admits, "it was not written in the spirit of Treitschke, for whom I have immense respect personally, but none whatever as a philosophic historian."

Mr. Bigelow has no evidence that the



AN OCEAN SNAP-SHOT OF MR. POULTNEY BIGELOW

Kaiser ever made an official promise to help the Boers against England in 1900, and he says that if he had made such a promise he would have kept it. "I never knew William II to tell a falsehood; I have never known him to accuse another of falsehood. But he has often created false impressions by giving way to the generous impulses of his nature, and the Kruger telegram is a glaring illustration."

Although Mr. Bigelow looks for peace in



1915,—dictated not by William II, but by the Allies,—he regards this prediction as in no way incompatible with his opinion that William II has already in this campaign proved himself "the greatest soldier since Frederick the Great," as Mr. Bigelow himself characterized him as long ago as 1889. At this moment, however, Mr. Bigelow is not concerned with William II the man, whom he esteems for his manly qualities, but with "William II as a responsible leader of a great nation in arms and therefore head of a power capable of wrecking or elevating any social structure within its reach."

Like other American observers, Mr. Bigelow is convinced that Germany to-day is dominated by "a school of soldiers, thinkers, and officials who clamor for German expansion and hiss down the moderate, wise people who deplore bloodshed as a means of spreading commercial prosperity." These military-minded expansionists have convinced themselves that England owes her position to her colonies, and that with the conquest of England Germany will at once be the ruler of the world.

The Germans themselves, however, are colonizing under the British flag, not under that of Germany. "While German merchants and German scholars have been for the past thirty years enriching themselves in England and in every British colony and spreading the fame of German wares and German culture, official Germany has been as industriously spreading distrust and rumors of war." In the one port of Singapore, Mr. Bigelow has counted at one moment twenty-five funnels of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company of Bremen; the ships of that company carried the British mails throughout Malaya; German merchants were quietly absorbing the trade of England's Far East, as they had that of South America.

All was going smoothly for the German individual colonist and merchant. How often have I heard him say: "I am doing very well—if only my *verdammt* government would leave me alone!"

Let an Englishman try to do business in Germany or in a German colony, and he will repent it. Germans in a British colony have the same rights as an Englishman or American—and no wonder that "made in Germany" has ceased to be ornamental in British eyes!

## HOW THE TURKS JUSTIFY THEIR ENTRANCE INTO THE WAR

ALL the European belligerents,—and the neutrals as well,—agree that the fate of the Ottoman Empire will be finally settled by this war. The Turkish press is full of indignant attacks on the entente powers. According to the *Jeune-Turc*, the Turks feel that they are only defending themselves against "implacable enemies." As to the first acts of war, this journal says:

The Turks claim that they were attacked first by a Russian fleet at the entrance of the Bosphorus, that the Dardanelles were practically blockaded by an Anglo-French fleet, that Akaba was bombarded and a landing attempted there, the first two acts before any declaration of war by Russia or England, and that only when they were thus provoked did they bombard Russian Black Sea ports.

Commenting on these claims the *Jeune-Turc* remarks:

We desired peace and tranquillity, but it was impossible for us to consider the incidents in the Egean and Black Sea, the aggression on our oriental frontiers, as anything else than pre-arranged acts. . . . The gauntlet has been thrown at us and we are lifting it up with courage and pride. . . . The great mistake of the allied powers was to believe that Turkey of 1914 was the Turkey of old, of despotism, trembling before the frowns and the threats of the great

powers. The situation has changed completely, and no such surprise as in 1912 was possible. A watchful government is ours that has not allowed itself to be coaxed by nice promises.

The text of the Sultan's manifesto to the Turkish army and navy is published in all the journals. It summarizes the reason for which Turkey regarded herself as justified in joining the Austro-German alliance against the Triple Entente. Referring to the historic enmity of Russia, and the growing hostility of Britain and France, the manifesto goes on to say:

For three centuries Russia has brought about many territorial losses to our Empire and has always tried by war and thousands of ruses to destroy every promise of awakening and regeneration, tending to increase our national power and strength. The Russian, English and French governments, who make three hundred million Moslems groan under a tyrannic régime, have never ceased to harbor malignant intentions against our Caliphate, to which these Moslems are attached by religion and heart. Those states were the causes or the instigators of every misfortune and disaster which have befallen us. By the supreme struggle, which we undertake at present, we shall put an end, with the grace of the Almighty, to all the attacks which have at all times been directed against the prestige of our Caliphate on one side and our sovereign rights on the other.

# THE TEACHINGS AND INFLUENCE OF TREITSCHKE

A LARGE part of the transformation in German national character in the last sixty years,—“easygoing, kindly, and pleasure-loving; capable of high achievements in art and science, but unpractical, unaggressive and singularly unfitted for political organization,” to the assertive militarism of to-day,—has been ascribed to the personal influence of Heinrich von Treitschke. While this is in a large measure true, it is more true that Treitschke recorded rather than influenced such transformation. President Arthur T. Hadley, of Yale University, who attended the lectures of Treitschke at the University of Berlin in the later seventies of the past century, contributes to the *Yale Review* an article on this German orator, journalist, and historian, which is very illuminating.

Far from identifying the nation's military efficiency with its idealism (as some English writers have charged him with doing), Treitschke, says Dr. Hadley, always maintained that

under existing circumstances the power of a nation to assert its political ideals was dependent upon having a strong army; but he never for a single instant countenanced the idea that the mere possession of military power proved that a nation had right ideals. On the contrary, he emphasized and deplored most bitterly the deterioration of German national character at the time of the consolidation of the German Empire in 1870.

Dr. Hadley protests against Treitschke being held responsible for many of the utterances of Bernhardt, but particularly for those of Nietzsche, “of whose views he publicly expressed his disapproval as often as he had a chance.” There is no similarity whatever between the doctrines of Treitschke and Nietzsche, he tells us.

Nietzsche preached the paramount duty of self-assertion. Treitschke preached the paramount duty of self-sacrifice. Nietzsche held that Christian morality, and in fact all morality, represented outworn superstition. Treitschke held that Christian morality was the most fundamentally necessary thing in modern life. Nietzsche worshiped power, and regarded ideals as mischievous illusions. Treitschke was an idealist to the very core, and regarded the exercise of power as justified only when it was used for the promotion of moral ideals.

Treitschke, says Dr. Hadley, was a herald of the new phase of German character, but he “framed no system of thought.”

Treitschke himself was a man of feeling rather

than a man of reason. It is true that he had many characteristics of the thinker. He was a man of research, who would use infinite pains to get all the evidence at command. He never intentionally suppressed or misstated a fact. His range of knowledge was as remarkable as his thoroughness of investigation. At the time when I saw most of him, in the later seventies, America was an undiscovered country to the majority of Germans. But Treitschke, though he had never visited America, knew its history and its institutions and even the minor details of its daily life. In common with many of his countrymen, he had a rather exaggerated idea of Chicago; but with this exception, his information was almost always correct, and always vital and pertinent. Washington and Jackson and Lincoln were living men to him. American institutions were analyzed and criticized with sympathetic appreciation. But amid all this careful study of fact, his judgments were essentially intuitive. He was not temperamentally a thinker. He did not reason out his conclusions; he saw them, and let the reasoning follow.

As a lecturer Treitschke had many points of resemblance with William Graham Sumner, says Dr. Hadley.

There was the same enormous knowledge of fact, the same independence of convention, the same clearness of vision as to what the lecturer saw, and impatience of consideration as to what the lecturer did not see; the same lofty idealism and the same scorn of diplomatic compromise. When someone urged the necessity of tactful negotiation, and said that it was not wise to tell the truth butt end foremost, Sumner once burst out with the dictum, “If there is anything that the truth was made for, it was to be told butt end foremost!” I have heard Treitschke express the same sentiment in almost identical form.

Far from glorifying Germany, Treitschke was, although devoted to Prussia in particular, a keen critic of all the German states, says Dr. Hadley.

The audience that gathered on the ground floor of the University of Berlin to listen to Treitschke's lectures on politics was a cosmopolitan one,—Germans from every state, foreigners from every nation. It was a rather curious thing that each group thought that Treitschke singled it out for particularly bitter criticism. Devoted as he was to Prussia, his attacks on the policy of the government frequently called forth stamps of angry protest from the Prussians in the audience. Treitschke was too deaf to hear the stamping, but he could see it; and when he saw any such demonstration he would draw himself up to his full height and say the same thing over again in accentuated form, as if he took delight in the storm that he had provoked.

Towards America Treitschke's feelings



were decidedly those of a friend. Towards France and Russia he had apparently no animosity,—always providing that these nations did not interfere with German development. The turning of his feelings against England was due to the fact that he held that power “most likely to prevent Germany’s expansion.” But his criticism of England was not indiscriminating.

His essay on Milton is one of the most appreciative pieces of historical criticism that has ever been written. So far as England of the present day has remained true to the ideals of Milton, he approves of it. As late as 1874, he commends

to the admiration of his fellow countrymen “the massive good sense of the Englishman, which, although it has in it much of hard-hearted class consciousness and much of unintellectual narrowness, nevertheless represents the political instinct of a free people which knows how to fight.” What he criticizes in the modern Englishman is that he has fallen away from the ideals of earlier centuries and has used his inherited political experience as an aid to selfishness rather than to self-sacrifice.

Treitschke, says Dr. Hadley in conclusion, was “so much a man of feeling that it is hard to give a coherent summary of his scheme of thought.”

## THE GERMAN CONSTITUTIONAL MOVEMENT AND THE WAR

HOWEVER the present great conflict may affect the political boundaries of Germany, it is hardly likely, writes William Harbutt Dawson, in the *Contemporary Review*, to “leave unchanged the boundaries of its political liberty.

This English writer reviews the course of the German fight for constitutional liberty from the Napoleonic era to the present. The Prussian nation, he maintains, has no reason to look back with

feelings of either satisfaction or gratitude upon its long struggle with the Crown for liberties which are the birthright of the free nations of western Europe, for the fruits yielded have been scanty and unsubstantial.

The position of the sovereign in Prussia, he reminds us, is “supreme and unassailable,” not only by tradition, but in constitutional theory and fact. As to the scant power of the legislative body, he says:

The predominant parliamentary form is a diet of two chambers, each possessed of equal power, but subject to an absolute veto on the part of the Government, which means the Crown, since ministers are both appointed and removable by the sovereign, and neither of the legislative bodies can exercise directive control over them. For practical purposes a German Legislature is merely a discussion club, with the mortifying difference that though it may end its discussions by adopting solemn resolutions, these resolutions cannot be executed unless graciously endorsed by a will outside its own. Below this exaggeration there is a foundation of truth, but if the words were literally accurate, it would not be very surprising. A German parliament achieves little on its own initiative, because it has no scope for the exercise of creative power, and is treated as a mere adjunct of the crown; it is accepted as a more or less necessary instrument for the execution of the royal will, but it is not expected to have a will of its own or allowed to assert one.

Prussia alone is responsible for this reactionary situation.

It is Prussia more than any other part of Germany, or all the rest of Germany together, which is responsible for the semi-absolutistic spirit in which that great country is still ruled, and by Prussia must be understood the Emperor-King, with his absurd pretensions of divine right, backed up by the military and bureaucratic caste and the Junker party, from which that caste is chiefly drawn and which controls Government policy in both Houses of the National Diet. The Junkers have never frankly recognized the new order which came into being when, in 1849, King Frederick William IV capitulated to constitutionalism, and they would subvert it to-day if they could. Moreover, the reactionary spirit which these irreconcilables display in the Parliament which they dominate and discredit they carry into the Parliament of the Empire, and endeavor to translate into the policy and legislation of the Imperial Government. It is not long since a typical Junker, one Herr von Oldenburg, declared, in the Imperial Diet, that “the Emperor should be in a position at any moment to say to a lieutenant, ‘Take ten men and shut up the Reichstag.’”

Recent German history, moreover, has shown repeatedly that

the doctrine of ministerial responsibility, as interpreted by the German Emperor and his government, simply means that the former enjoys the privilege of making mischief by his indiscretions and of leaving his Chancellor to set things right. When such episodes occur the Reichstag debates vehemently; the press of all complexions storms as only a government-regulated press can storm when it momentarily slips the chain; and the nation, taking its cue from what it hears and reads, demands with entire sincerity that something shall be done; but as soon as passion has exhausted itself the matter ends with resolutions.

In conclusion, Mr. Harbutt Dawson has this to say:

Thoughtful Germans know well that one of the

principal reasons why all past attempts to bring about a good understanding between their country and our own [the English] have failed has been the fact that the German Government does not represent the German people, and that in the determination of national policy the nation has no effective voice. Nothing short of the substitu-

tion of genuine Parliamentary government for the present discredited personal *régime* will satisfy the aspirations of the modern democracy and give to the German nation the chance of striking at notorious evils which have now brought it to the verge of disaster and have caused it to forfeit the sympathy of the entire civilized world.

## WHAT ITALY GAINS BY REMAINING NEUTRAL

THE advantages resulting to Italy from a strict maintenance of her neutrality are convincingly stated in *Nuova Antologia* by an "ex-diplomat." He warns against the dangers that would ensue if the impatience of the friends of one side or the other in the great conflict should be permitted to influence Italian policy so as to involve the country in the dreadful war now raging. Reciting the considerations favoring the government's determination not to change its present policy, he says:

Our material interests and the lives of our countrymen are not risked in the bloody venture of battles, and we have reason to hope that the indispensable continuity of our national labor will not be interrupted. Neither contracted obligations nor reasonable scruples prevent us, according to commonly accepted and respected rules, from prohibiting the exportation of the surplus of agricultural and industrial products over and above what must be guarded for the sustenance and defense of the peninsula, and trade, the basis of our economic activity, is being gradually resumed and may be expected to increase still further.

We have no lack of laborers to raise and reap our crops, to till and sow our fertile fields; almost all our factories are still in operation and slowly but surely the delicate strands of credit, so rudely snapped asunder by the outbreak of the world-war are being reknit.

We cannot pretend that we should derive any profit from the present unfortunate situation which has enforced the return to their native land upon many thousands of Italians who had found work in foreign countries; we cannot cherish fond hopes of prosperity; we can only comfort ourselves with the thought that not all the currents of production are arrested, and that fields for Italian labor still remain open, and this conviction is strengthened by the current price of our national securities as well as by the relatively moderate rate of exchange. Consoled by this knowledge, and aided by the efficient action of our government, the country is gradually recovering from the panic that overtook us at the end of last July, savings are flowing back to well-known institutions, and the supple genius of our people has sought and found a way to adapt our reserve energies to the new necessities. . . . Neutrality, therefore, has proved an effectual defense for our economic interests against greater and worse evils, and from a political standpoint it has procured for us the signal advantage of inducing many foreigners to justly estimate the worth of Italian friendship and of Italian power.

As to the extent of the obligation imposed upon Italy by the triple alliance, the writer lays stress on the fact that Austria's ultimatum to Servia, in its tenor and its requirements, exceeded the manner of Servia's direct responsibility for the dreadful crime of Serajevo. As a possible peaceful solution of the question had been proposed by Sir Edward Grey, through concerted action by the interested powers,—Germany, France, Russia, and England,—and this had not been absolutely refused by Germany at the outset, he insists that the war did not arise because of any necessity on the part of the members of the triple alliance to defend themselves from aggression. He continues:

However, outside of the intrinsic arguments, we must all take into consideration the extrinsic ones. It is inadmissible that a country should be forced to take so important a step as to participate in a war,—even in one less vast and terrible than that now raging,—simply because of a previous general engagement, when this is not subject to control and recognizable by all as indubitable, that is to say, without the attainment of an understanding reached through examination of the grounds leading to a common agreement.

Now, not even this understanding, which we must regard as fundamental, has been attained. The note sent to Servia, in which Russia was unquestionably an interested party, was not communicated to our Government before it was transmitted to the telegraphic bureaus of information. Hence neither the scope of the treaty nor the considerations that determined the contest imposed upon us any obligation of solidarity. This fact has indeed been loyally recognized by the allied empires, as is shown by the statements of official journals and of eminent statesmen, both German and Austro-Hungarian.

As to the considerations that might induce Italy to abandon her neutrality, this writer asserts that as yet there is no immediate prospect of such a change. While Von Bülow directs our attention solely to the Mediterranean, M. Pichon sees only the Adriatic, but Italy's interests are equally involved in both directions. In the meanwhile an armed neutrality assures to Italy protection from any unpleasant surprises, and may enable her to voice those sentiments of equity which alone can lead to a durable peace.



## CURES BY ABSORPTION

SOME very recent experiments by modern physicians have led to the revival of the treatment of certain maladies by means of substances having a high absorbent power. Centuries ago fine white clay was highly esteemed as a dressing for wounds, especially those with a foul discharge and for such diseases of the alimentary canal as diarrhœa, cholera, typhus, and flux, as well as for "heart-burn" and for cases of poisoning. In the last century powdered charcoal was employed for similar purposes. As early as 1830 a heroic druggist named Thouéry ventured to swallow 1 gram of strychnine (about ten times the average lethal dose), together with fifteen grams of charcoal powder. He escaped without injury, and thus proved the virtue that inheres in charcoal.

Unfortunately, instances of such remarkable efficacy led to absorbents being tried enthusiastically for such different things as cancer and consumption, where they naturally failed of effect. According to a modern authority, Prof. L. Lichtwitz, of Göttingen, this is the reason that absorption therapy became discredited and was neglected until practically forgotten.

In an article in *Die Naturwissenschaften* (Berlin) he says:

The first person to revive this old, forgotten therapeutics was I. Stumpf, who first made successful use of *bolus alba* (kaolin) to bandage wounds having a copious and putrid discharge. Stumpf then began to give *bolus alba* for the cholera morbus of children and in cases of Asiatic cholera, and was successful here also. He has recently announced excellent results from its use in a Bulgarian cholera hospital. He also carried out two experiments on dogs. Within 11 days' time they received respectively 1.2 grams and 3.5 grams of pulverized white arsenic (many times the amount of the usual fatal dose), together with 400 grams of *bolus*, without dying.

Professor Lichtwitz has personally investigated different absorbents and their action on different substances. He divides the domain in which they are applicable into four departments:

1. Maladies of the stomach, such as hyperchlorhydria and its consequences (especially *ulcus pepticum*) and fermentative processes.
2. Bacterial affections of the intestines in which the whole organism is endangered by bacterial toxins.
3. Gastro-intestinal auto-intoxication.
4. Poisonings.

From this summary of the field of action it is obvious that it was necessary to investi-

gate the absorption of hydrochloric acid (which is the principal component of the gastric juice), lactic acid, the various ferments (pepsin, trypsin, etc.) and various toxins. He continues:

We have carried out such investigations and find that hydrochloric acid is absorbed, both in the test tube and in the stomach, by blood-charcoal, kaolin, *Magisterium Bismuthi*, and *neutralon* to such an extent that hyperchlorhydria is reduced to the normal. Pepsin also is absorbed by all these media, both in the stomach and in the test tube. It is particularly interesting that bismuth, which is so much employed in the therapeutics of supersecretion and of ulceration of the stomach, should prove to be an absorbent.

The absorption of ferments is an irreversible action . . . the most strongly absorbent medium being blood-charcoal (Merck's). We investigated two easily measurable blood-dissolving poisons: that of the cobra and that of the garden spider (*arachnolysin*). In both the absorptive action was irreversible, and here again the strongest absorbent was Merck's blood-charcoal.

An important point made by the writer is that both blood-charcoal and kaolin can be prescribed for invalids without hesitation, since they are quite harmless even in large doses. He states that he has employed them in many cases of stomach trouble with good results. A curious fact is that when given before meals they strongly affect the appetite. Thus heavy eaters, or those taking an obesity cure, may curb the pangs of gnawing hunger by swallowing clay or charcoal. The effect here, says the author, is doubtless due to the absorption of what is known as the "appetite juice," which is an important constituent of the stomachic secretion. For patients suffering from supersecretion, on the other hand, the charcoal or kaolin is given after meals instead of before. He also gives details of one case in his own knowledge where a victim of a severe case of anemia was cured by the washing out of the stomach and intestine and the giving of large doses of kaolin. He says further:

The absorption of gases by charcoal has led to attempts to aid flatulence by its use. If success be attained it is probably not due to absorption of the gases themselves, since this is possible only with dry charcoal, but to absorption of the putrescent matter or of the bacteria which cause the evolution of the gas.

The article concludes with an account of some very remarkable experiments with divers very virulent poisons. Blood-charcoal was used with excellent results on both animals and human beings.

## THE POLES AND AUSTRIA

OF all the states taking part in the present war, the greatest game is being played by Austria, says the *Gazeta Warszawska* (*Warsaw Gazette*), for she is playing for her existence. A people confident of its national status may in war sustain great losses. It may lose much importance and influence. It may even be stripped of its independence. Yet it will not cease to be a nation, and it has the ability of reviving subsequently. When Austria loses, however, it is more than probable, the *Gazeta Warszawska* believes, that she will vanish from the map of Europe—"And the funeral of Austria once performed, will mean her death forever."

Of this artificial mass, which is the survivor of the ancient German Empire, and which is oppressing other peoples, principally the Slavonians,—when it shall once be smashed, there will remain no force that could again create it that would even wish to aspire to do so.

Having cleaved, for the salvation of its being, to Prussianized Germany, this state to-day is at war, not only with Serbia, which it attacked, and with Russia, which could not permit the crushing of Serbia, but also with France and England,—while in the near future the number of its adversaries will probably increase. Preparations are making for the funeral of the monarchy of the Hapsburgs, on which many peoples will look with delight, and few will mourn.

Although in this war the Poles are not a belligerent party, as they have not their own army, yet, in view of the fact that the war is being carried on particularly on their soil, the *Gazeta Warszawska* believes that it is not a matter of indifference to anybody on which side they stand. The directors of the policies of the Austrian state, observes this Polish journal, for a long time did not doubt that the Poles could side solely with Austria.

The Austrian diplomats, with that shortsightedness by which they have always been distinguished, did not observe that the political thought in the Polish nation has in latter times begun to ripen rapidly, and that the nation has begun by reason of it to widen its horizon. They did not comprehend that for our orientation it no longer suffices that one-fifth of our nation living in the Austrian portion of Poland avails itself of a certain degree of political and national liberties,—sapped, for the rest, of its influence and consequence by the policy (really hostile to us) of the Austrian Government. They did not comprehend that over our orientation the question, What will become of the Polish nation as a whole,—what is the greatest menace to our national being as a whole? has the ascendancy. And they did not know that for years in the mass of our nation,—from the reflective politicians, guided by deeper thought, to the wide strata of the people, governed by sound national

instinct,—the feeling has become firmly fixed that the most menacing, most dangerous foe of our national future are the Germans, and that, for us, all are foes that support the Germans.

To many Austrian politicians, undoubtedly, there came as a surprise the fervor that seized our country at the outbreak of the war; the slogan, discharged full breast, "At the German!" with which there went at once, without hesitation, everybody, from the masses of the reservists, going to the war as a wedding feast, to the representatives of our country at St. Petersburg, declaring the attitude of our nation. Yea, "At the German!" to destroy that nest of implacable foes devouring the oldest as well as most important sections of our national future, destroying the Polish culture with rigid consistency and ejecting the Polish people from its immemorial seats; to demolish the forge of intrigues that have been carried on against us in all countries! This is the slogan which soared above Poland in that great, historic, threatening moment. But, if at the German, then also at the Austrian, who helps the German. When the obsequies of Austria take place, we shall not weep.

Of all the parts of Poland, Galicia has always stood farthest from the universal national life, declares the *Gazeta Warszawska*.

Rent from Poland at the first partition, taking no part in the movement of rebirth that came later, standing aloof from the great national movements,—she formed for herself her own distinct political psychics and has lost the ability for a deeper comprehension of the rest of Poland.

In this division of Poland, after it had obtained political and national liberties, there was developed a practical political life, and in this life men of that section acquired no small political proficiency. But the proficiency has been consumed merely in local and Austrian affairs. The Galician politicians have been losing more and more the ability to comprehend the Polish cause as a whole. Finally, men whom the Polish cause does not interest,—men who, under the name of a Polish policy, pursue at best a policy in part Galician, in part Austrian,—have even attained to dominating influence. Among the Austrian politicians there have even been men capable of playing in politics the Poles in Russian Poland, in the same way that the Vienna politicians play the Albanians in the Balkans,—men ready to serve the aims of the Austrian policy as agents in the Polish cause. Although there are not many of these, still, thanks to their position, they have great influence.

And now Galicia, this fifth part of the nation,—veritably or ostensibly,—again takes her stand against the gigantic majority of the nation, against its will, on the side,—as she comprehends,—of Austria; but, as the whole world comprehends, in defense of Prussianism.

This "stupefaction of the mind and reason of the nation," the *Gazeta Warszawska* says, is perhaps the greatest of all the dangers menacing the Poles in the midst of the calamities which the war is bringing upon their country.



## OUR ARMY OF UNEMPLOYED

THE only "army" in America of numerical consequence at this moment is the so-called army of the out-of-works. A year ago much discussion arose concerning the enlistment and maintenance of this army, and, according to an article contributed by Mr. William Parr Capes to the *North American Review* for December, this discussion had certain fruitful results. It has at least laid bare a situation that has existed in this country for a long time, but until recently had not been recognized by any except students of industrial and economic conditions and others whose occupation brought them into immediate contact with it. It is now known that every city at all times has an unemployment problem, and some of our State governments have been brought to see the need of constructive legislation.

There are those who contend that the size of the army of unemployed one year ago was only normal, and not the result of abnormal industrial and commercial conditions. If this is a fact it simply furnishes added proof of our national negligence and further emphasizes, as Mr. Capes points out, the necessity for constructive work. Within the last twelve months, says Mr. Capes, more consideration has been given to the needs of the men out of work by more individuals and organizations, and more has been accomplished in the way of making basic studies and providing remedial measures than within any similar period in some time.

### GETTING THE FACTS

There is now a strong tendency to advocate and to demand something more than a temporary substitute for work for the idle. We are beginning to see the fallacy of trying to bring about permanent improvement by relying upon palliative measures such as bread lines and soup kitchens. Public officials having to do with this problem are more interested than ever before in obtaining the facts of the situation. The Department of Charities of New York City, supported by private social-service agencies, made a comprehensive inquiry during the first three months of the year 1914 into the physical, mental and social history of 1483 homeless men who applied for aid at the Municipal Lodging House. This study yielded valuable data which may be used to guide the officials of New York in formulating a constructive plan to maintain its helpless dependents.

One of the first important steps in the so-

lution of the unemployment problem should be a thorough and comprehensive study of the character and capability of the homeless men and women who apply for relief. We shall then have some basis upon which to establish the number of homeless applicants who are incapable because of old age or other handicaps, the number of those who have legal residence in other localities and friends and relatives able to assist them with homes or work, the number of tramps, vagrants, inebriates, and beggars, and the number of those who are aliens and should be returned to the Commissioner of Immigration as public dependents in accordance with the law.

### FARM COLONIES

The State of New York has authorized the establishment of a State farm colony for tramps and vagrants, but at the present time this project is practically at a standstill. With an institution of this kind for those who either are unfitted to work or refuse to do honest labor, and who, after care and training, would be capable of honest self-support, every community would be able quickly to rid itself of this class of helpless beings and parasites. Switzerland has shown what can be expected from this line of procedure. Another class of the unemployable would be provided for by the establishment of a State custodial asylum for feeble-minded delinquents. The municipality of New York has already committed itself to the policy of care for inebriates. The establishment of a farm colony for this class of defectives has been authorized and a site has been selected. There is also need of proper facilities for the detention of homeless wanderers ill of tuberculosis and convalescent homes for the care of poor persons. To this list should be added adequate almshouse accommodations.

The operation of these institutions would certainly greatly reduce the number of those who are continually applying for public aid in our cities and towns. Besides reducing the number of the unemployed, the problem of finding work for the employable would be made less complicated. A greater number of employers would be eager to coöperate for the reason that they would have confidence in the fitness of those in whose behalf relief agencies and city administrations are laboring. This confidence is now lacking because of the knowledge that many seeking work and in whose behalf work is being sought are not worthy of hire.

# ELECTRIC RAILWAY PROGRESS

COMPLETE statistics covering the extensions of electric railways made in all parts of the country during the last year are not at hand at this writing; but, while such extensions have been in the aggregate far below the normal average for any other year in the last decade, owing to the collapse of the money markets of the world which made financing of all public utilities extremely difficult (and new ventures impossible), a few notable extensions have been built. One such, a long link in the chain of electric interurban railways radiating from Dallas, Texas, completes the Texas Traction Company's electric railway system of approximately 250 miles,—by far the longest in Texas and the longest in the whole South.

The growth of electric railway lines in our American cities has come to be a perfectly natural and inevitable concomitant of the growth of the cities themselves, and the extension of such transportation facilities, instead of stimulating and leading city growth as was formerly the common case, nowadays in many instances cannot keep pace with the rapidity of urban development. And as soon as general and complete financial readjustments are thoroughly under way electric railway extensions into the rural districts undoubtedly will be resumed, and that on a greater scale than ever before. For this factor has contributed in a greater degree to the advancement of farming in communities remote from markets than any other development of modern times. The electric railway has brought the markets to the farmer's door, and has also operated to improve immensely social conditions on the farm. In the words of one wide-awake electric railway president, "As a device for taking up what may be called economic lost motion between the city and the country, the electric railway has no superior."

Writing recently, in the *Electric Railway Journal*, on "Five Years' Development of the American Electric Railway," Frank R. Ford, of the engineering firm of Ford, Bacon & Davis, sums up the findings of a careful study of the statistics of the whole field in the following general conclusions:

1. The business as a whole is being operated more economically and conservatively.
2. Maintenance and depreciation of property are being better provided for.
3. Increased net earnings due to more efficient operation are being largely absorbed by increased taxes.
4. Capital is receiving a slightly enlarged

return, but the increase is too small to be attractive in comparison with the returns in other industries.

5. Development of and investment in the industry are not keeping pace with the increase of traffic.

Throughout the twelve months just ended the attention, indeed the most careful and studious consideration, of electric railway officers and managers in all parts of the country has been devoted largely to two subjects of supreme public interest and importance: first, the ramifications of the "Safety First" movement; and, secondly, the broader and all-inclusive subject of "Public Relations." There has come to be a pretty general recognition on the part of all enlightened electric railway management that, while the returns for the expenditure are difficult to measure in dollars and cents, there is absolute certainty of a good return on all of the money that a railway is likely to spend on safety work. This, entirely aside from all personal feelings of humanitarianism (and electric railway men are not devoid of such), is pretty good evidence that the Safety First movement is only in its infancy, and that there is sure to be a rapidly and steadily increasing utilization by electric railway companies of every practical device and precautionary measure for the safeguarding of life and limb.

Along with most other public service corporations, the electric railway companies to-day realize that the question of their public relations underlies their financial existence. This subject of public relations naturally divides itself into three parts, namely: the proper attitude of the companies and the public towards each other, the improvements possible in operating conditions, and the broad question of regulation. The *Electric Railway Journal* recently devoted a special extra number or "annual convention section" of more than 100 pages to a symposium of articles on this subject contributed by many leaders of the industry, by members of several public service commissions, and by such well-known publicists as Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus, of Harvard; Dugald C. Jackson, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Alexander C. Humphreys, president of Stevens Institute of Technology; and others. Speaking editorially, the *Journal* says that this question of public relations "is the paramount question to-day before the electric railways of the country."



# PROFESSOR ELY ON PROPERTY AND CONTRACT



PROFESSOR RICHARD T. ELY, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN  
(Author of "Property and Contract in their Relations to the Distribution of Wealth")

THERE is a grain of reason for the seeming divergence between advanced social philosophy in this country and the decisions of our courts on social questions. Save in rare instances, social theory has not been taught in our law schools, and most of the lawyers who come to the bench are without special training or equipment in any branch of sociology. As Professor Roscoe Pound, of the Harvard Law School, has remarked, "It is still good form for the lawyer to look upon our eighteenth-century Bills of Rights as authoritative text-books of politics, of

ethics, and of economics." Lawyers as a class do not come in contact, as much as they should, with the literature of modern economic thought. It is not strange that many judicial decisions seem antiquated in viewpoint. The men who write these decisions simply do not know what has been going on in the economic life of the world since Coke and Blackstone and Kent wrote their treatises.

An American economist has at last ventured to discuss a subject long held sacred by the legal profession, "Property and Contract in Their Relations to the Distribution of Wealth."<sup>1</sup>

Professor Ely, the author of the two-volume work in which this topic is treated, acknowledges the influence (in his early years) of the German economists, Knies of Heidelberg and Wagner of Berlin. Indeed, it was Ely who, as long ago as 1880, when the science of economics had hardly become organized in America, came back from his sojourn as a student in Germany

with new ideas about methods of economic research. His little book on French and German Socialism was one of the earliest attempts to make American readers acquainted with the European labor movement, and this was followed, after some years of investigation, by a work dealing with the American efforts to combine and organize the workers. Two other books, "Taxation in American States and Cities" and "Socialism and Social Re-

<sup>1</sup> Property and Contract in Their Relations to the Distribution of Wealth. By Richard T. Ely. Macmillan. 2 vols. 995 pp. \$4.

form," have had a wide reading, and Professor Ely is also the author of several textbooks of political economy. It may be fairly claimed that no economist of this generation has done more to popularize his science, in the truest sense. He was one of the founders of the American Economic Association, and the founder and director of the American Bureau of Industrial Research.

In his long academic career,—twelve years as head of the department of political economy at Johns Hopkins University and twenty-two years in a corresponding position at the University of Wisconsin,—Professor Ely has inspired and directed the labors of hundreds of students, many of whom have themselves become teachers in universities and colleges throughout the land. The influence of his German masters has thus been passed on, through his books and lectures, to a second and third academic generation in America.

While the original impulse to much of his research work and many suggestions as to method may have come from Germany, the actual content is American,—built up from the experience and observation of American life. This is clearly shown in all his writings, and in none more clearly than in the present work. Not only are the illustrations chiefly taken from American situations, but the whole work is addressed particularly to readers assumed to be familiar with business and social conditions here.

In order to bring out in bold relief the facts underlying the distribution of wealth in this country, Professor Ely institutes interesting comparisons between results attained under private and government ownership of certain public utilities. Thus, for example, he cites the Vanderbilt fortune in this country, which was made out of railroads, and compares the services to the public rendered by the first Cornelius Vanderbilt in consolidating the New York Central system with similar services rendered by an able railroad manager in Würtemberg, Germany, who was a government official. Like Commodore Vanderbilt, this German administrator unified the railroad system of Würtemberg, which, although smaller than the Vanderbilt interests, is yet considerable. (It appears that the publicly owned railroad system of Würtemberg is more than half as long as the New York Central lines at the death of Commodore Vanderbilt.) The point of the comparison is that Commodore

Vanderbilt received for his services a fortune of \$100,000,000, while the Würtemberg official had only his government salary of less than \$3000 a year, which, if capitalized, would represent about \$50,000!

Happily, the author's wide range of reading on the economic and social aspects of his subject is supplemented by a sympathetic acquaintance with the trend of court decisions, very many of which, despite the limitations already mentioned, are well-reasoned, broad, and illuminating utterances, fully deserving of the economists' respect. Professor Ely has made a distinct contribution to a science that is new in this country, and has been christened with a long and awkward name,—sociological jurisprudence. This science is not so new in Germany, France, or England, but comparatively few Americans have pursued it in those countries. It is to be hoped that Professor Ely's book will be very generally read by lawyers and judges, and that it will stimulate an interest in the work of Professor Pound and others in this field. A Wisconsin judge, after reading the proof-sheets of "Property and Contract," wrote: "It should be read by all judges, for you leave marked the highroad along which courts must travel if they are to make the law a living science that shall meet the needs of our ever-changing civilization."

The first volume opens with a discussion of distribution and its place in the system of economics. The author then proceeds to consider the fundamentals in the existing socioeconomic order, treated from the standpoint of distribution; that is to say, property public and private, its attributes and characteristics, property and the police power, and, in general, the social theory of property. A more detailed treatment of landed property is reserved for later volumes.

In the second volume Professor Ely deals particularly with the significance of contract, especially with respect to the distribution of wealth, vested interests, and personal conditions.

Our author's erudition is nowhere so brilliantly displayed as in the massing of scientific authorities in support of his thesis that private property is an institution maintained for social reasons, with limitations based on the requirements of society. It is here that the fruitage of thirty-five years of discriminating study is made available in a form that can be utilized by the laity as well as by scholars and professional men.



# THE SEASON'S BOOKS

## THE NEW POETRY

MANY volumes of poetry have come from our American poets during the last few months. Several are of the highest order of lyrical excellence; many reach a gratifying average of inspiration and technique; very few fall below the requirements of serious consideration. The reader will note several that experiment with words much as the Futurists and the Cubists have experimented with paint and marble. They have fallen in line with the march of Modern Art toward the primitive and have discarded intricate rhyme for unrhymed versification, or the so-called *vers libre*. The sonnet, the ballade, the chant-royal, villanelle, kyriele, rondeau rondel, and other sophisticated lyric forms are nowhere to be found in their work. The result is a loss in pure singing, in lusciousness and sweetness, but a gain in originality, variety, and spontaneity. A few,—among them Nicholas Vachel Lindsay,—have introduced novelty of form and still kept the end-rhymes.

Nicholas Vachel Lindsay, whose notable poem, "General William Booth Enters Heaven," has received much deserved praise, both from poets and the general public, publishes a new volume of verse, "The Congo," which contains lyrics, poems of childhood, and poems of the War of 1914.<sup>1</sup> Mr. Lindsay decided some time ago that American readers wanted poetry-vaudeville, a quick-change, emotional mixture of classicism and ragtime,—poetry pounded into popularity to the clang of cymbals and the thump of big bass drums. Probably nothing more sensational in its daring, more haunting in its weird music than "The Congo," has ever been written by an American poet. It is a study of the negro race,—of their basic savagery, irrepressible high spirits, and the hope of their religion. Mr. Lindsay "thinks black" for the time being, and carries one backward in time to look upon the Congo wheeling in its golden track, past lost lairs of the black race, past altars where fear-mad worshippers howled in the moonlight to "Mumbo-Jumbo," their horrible and bloodthirsty god. There is magic in this poem, just as there was in "General Booth." It would hardly be true to say the same of "The Santa Fé Trail" and "The Fireman's Ball," both of which are written in a similar manner. Several of the author's earlier poems are republished in this book, among them a few that were included in the pamphlet, "Rhymes to Be Traded for Bread." Mr. Lindsay has proved that originality is for him who will vigorously lay hold on it. He is a rebel against conventional form, but he exaggerates rather than disregards meter and rhyme. For this reason, as well as for many others, it would seem that of the ultra-modern versifiers, his art will please the larger audience. The love of music is inherent in most of us, and we have accustomed our ears to the sound of end-rhymes.

In the preface to "Open Water,"<sup>2</sup> a new collection of verse by Arthur Stringer, its author gives a lengthy defense of the new unrhymed poetry. His book contains fifty poems that have no end-rhymes, and are written partly with the definite object of freeing poetry from the conventions that have been set for the poet by his artistic predecessors. The form of the New Poetry and the Poetry of Futurism is a return to the older and more primitive rhythms. Mr. Stringer calls attention to the fact that Celtic poetry, the Teutonic, and the Scandinavian is without rhyme. The Greeks in their melic poetry had no use for it, and the rhymed Latin verse did not come into use until the end of the fourth century, and not until after the Conquest did end-rhyme become general in English song. He thinks that the freedom from end-rhyme and accentual rhythm will do much to bring originality to the modern poet. He will not seek to be an echo, nor will he be shackled by the great poets of the past. The poem "Sappho's Tomb" best illustrates the color and word-beauty Mr. Stringer has wrought by following his convictions.

Also of the new cult is Mr. James Oppenheim, who vividly interprets the America of to-day in "Songs for the New Age."<sup>3</sup> He gives us a drink of that "biting liquor, the Truth," and tears away life's shams and hypocrisies with no gentle hand. His untrammelled meters have been called "poly-rhythmical poetry." They are like ruddy, clean-limbed Greek athletes leaping over the hurdles of the stars. The author's word to those who are anxious to contribute something to modern civilization is: "Go and contribute a Man." Mr. Oppenheim's credo is partly expressed in the following stanza:

"For I have found myself:  
I have ceased to be ashamed of the things I cannot  
do  
And have become proud of the things I can do:  
I have accepted simple living and endless labor:  
I have accepted peril and risk all around me,  
And I have become patient with the world and  
with my own faltering."

Harriet Monroe, well known as a poet and as editor of *Poetry: A Magazine of Verse*, first brought the attention of the public to Mr. Lindsay's peculiar genius. She is an exponent of the immediate movement in modern art, which she holds to be "the return to primitive sympathies between the artist and the audience which makes possible once more the assertion of primitive creative power." Her own best work has been gathered into a volume, "You and I."<sup>4</sup> The turmoil,

<sup>2</sup> Open Water. By Arthur Stringer. John Lane. 132 pp. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> Songs for the New Age. By James Oppenheim. Century. 162 pp.

<sup>4</sup> You and I. By Harriet Monroe. Macmillan. 236 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>1</sup> The Congo and Other Poems. By Nicholas Vachel Lindsay. Macmillan. 159 pp. \$1.25.

the sharp transitions of modern life, its furious exuberance of energy, are expressed in her verse. As a whole, the collection is characterized by variety of theme, surety of technique, and amplitude of thought. One of the best is "The Turbine."

"By and Large,"<sup>1</sup> a new book of verse by Franklin P. Adams, the widely known "F. P. A.," director of a daily "colyum" in the New York *Tribune* known as "The Conning Tower," contains gleeful humoresques originally fashioned for the "colyum," most diverting and of amazing cleverness. They bring to the reader much laughter for their clear perspective on life's absurdities and occasionally a tear for human nature's foibles and weaknesses.

Katherine Howard, that rare mystic, author of "The Book of the Serpent," "Eve," and "Candle-flame," has written a book of delicate lyrics, "Poems,"<sup>2</sup> which greatly resemble Japanese poetry in their brevity, symbolism, and saturation of potential meaning. They penetrate the soul, flashing hither and thither seeking for that unattainable beauty which is Poesy and Truth,—and God,—and they are for us only with our concurrence. They are the inbreathing and the outbreathing of a mind that has found felicity in accepting the opposed equilibriums of life,—necessity and freedom,—as powers of equal good whose balance is perfect harmony. "River of Me," "Whenever On a Grave I Sit," and "To Charlotte" are among the best. A stanza of this last poem illustrates her style:

"In the dark night  
When I lie wide awake  
My thoughts grow mystic-wise,—  
Great thoughts I have that make  
A brightness cross my eyes  
In the dark night,—  
As if a light shone clear  
And fine from out my brain,  
Or someone held a lantern near,—  
Someone who holds me dear,—  
In the dark night."

Amy Lowell's poetry is a rebuke to those poets of the new school who "think that a fine idea excuses slovenly workmanship." In "Sword Blades and Poppy Seed"<sup>3</sup> she has demonstrated the fact that intensity and emotion gain in carrying power if combined with the finest technique. She uses *vers libre*, the new revival of the old form of unrhymed cadence, in her book with great success, and has expressed very definitely the reason for the return of modern poetry to this form. Poetry to-day seeks the primitive: "The desire to 'quintessentialize,' to head-up an emotion until it burns white-hot, seems to be an integral part of the modern temper, and certainly unrhymed cadence is unique in its power of expressing this." One of the best of this collection, a poem of deep symbolism, is "The Shadow."

The compelling strength of John Masefield's genius is revealed in the memorable poem, "August, 1914," published in his latest volume of

poetry,—a poem that pierces to the depths of English patriotism and makes one realize the sorrow and gravity with which men of peace in England regarded the Empire's mobilization for the war. "Philip the King,"<sup>4</sup> the title poem, presents a one-act drama, the scene of which is laid in Spain at the time of the Great Armada.

Conrad Aiken tells stories in verse. His first published book, "Earth Triumphant,"<sup>5</sup> will, in spite of obvious originality, remind the reader of Masefield. His stories are graphic; his short lyrics steeped in warm earth-music. He writes: "Is not the poet he who loves earth best?" Mr. Aiken's book is one of the most pleasing of the year.

Mr. Wilfrid Wilson Gibson has had much praise for two previous books of verse, "Daily Bread" and "Fires." His present book, "Borderlands and Thoroughfares,"<sup>6</sup> brings together three plays and a number of lyrics which will not disappoint his admirers. Especially successful are "The Queen's Crags" and those lyrics that are poignant echoes of the London streets. For sheer pictorial representation he is unexcelled among the men who belong to the Masefield school.

Franklin Henry Giddings has turned aside for the moment from sociology to write "Pagan Poems,"<sup>7</sup> songs of power and fate, of life and its mysteries, the reaction in a questioning mind of our age of war and transition. He finds, as do all the wise, that power dwells alone with the kind and the gentle:

"Seeking minds and deathless hearts  
Faring on in comradeship,  
Dauntless souls of gentleness,  
Ye the only power are."

Harry Kemp, the so-called "tramp poet," has given us two books of verse of recent publication. "The Thresher's Wife,"<sup>8</sup> a homely tragedy bearing a certain resemblance to the Masefield poetic storytelling, and "The Cry of Youth,"<sup>9</sup> a collection of lyrics that establishes Mr. Kemp's right to a place in the foremost ranks of the "younger choir." "The Conquerors" ironically visions the great warriors of the world riding by with all their loathsome pomp. They disappear, and after them rides "Christ the Swordless, on an ass." Many of these new poems are reminiscent of Mr. Kemp's varied experiences. The poet was born at Youngstown, Ohio, in 1883. He came to New Jersey when twelve years of age and, after a short time spent in school, went to work in a factory. Shortly afterward he discovered Keats, and the tramping instinct asserted itself. He went to Australia as a cabin-boy on a bark, the *Pestallozi*, ran away in Sydney and lived as a tramp, finally escaping to China on a cattle-boat. Next he came to light in Manila, and managed to get back to the United States on a transport. Since then he has alter-

<sup>1</sup> By and Large. By Franklin P. Adams. Doubleday, Page. 148 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> Poems. By Katherine Howard. Sherman, French. 78 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> Sword Blades and Poppy Seed. By Amy Lowell. Macmillan. 246 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>4</sup> Philip the King. By John Masefield. Macmillan. 141 pages. \$1.25.

<sup>5</sup> Earth Triumphant and Other Poems. By Conrad Aiken. Macmillan. 219 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>6</sup> Borderlands and Thoroughfares. By Wilfrid Wilson Gibson. Macmillan. 195 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>7</sup> Pagan Poems. By Franklin Henry Giddings. Macmillan. 80 pp. \$1.

<sup>8</sup> The Thresher's Wife. By Harry Kemp. Albert and Chas. Boni. 32 pp. 40 cents.

<sup>9</sup> The Cry of Youth. By Harry Kemp. Mitchell Kennerly. 140 pp. \$1.25.



nately worked, tramped, and traveled and written poetry. His prose tragedy, "Judas," was noted in the pages of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS last year.

"Radiant health!

O kisses of sun and wind, tall fir trees, and moss-covered rocks. O boundless joy of Nature on the mountaintops—coming back at last to you! O joy of the liberated soul . . . daring all things."

This joy is what a book of verse, "The Gipsy Trail: An Anthology for Campers"<sup>1</sup> (and for all others who cannot go camping but find solace in Nature poetry), brings in large measure. Its subtitles are: "The Call of the Open," "The Joy of the Road," "Inland Waters," "The Sea," "The Hills," "The Road to Elfland," "Comradeship" (which includes Matthew Arnold's "Thyrsis"), "Evening," "Autumn," etc.:

Songs of Sixpence. By Abbie Farwell Brown. Ill. Houghton Mifflin. 215 pp. \$1.25.

Poems Obiter. By R. E. L. Smith. The Gorham Press. 142 pp. \$1.

The Great Grey King. By Samuel Valentine Cole. Sherman French. 146 pp. \$1.

Idylls of Greece. By Howard Sutherland. Desmond FitzGerald. 192 pp. \$1.

"Tid'apa" (What does it matter). By Gilbert Frankau. Huebsch. 42 pp. 75 cents.

Sunlight and Shadow. By Louise Kneeland. Sherman French. 93 pp. \$1.

Truth and Other Poems. By Paul Carus. Open Court Pub. Co. 61 pp. \$1.

The Shadow Babe. By Jessamine Kimball Draper. Sherman French. 61 pp. \$1.

"Tuskawanta." By George H. Babcock, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Poems. By Edward Sanford Martin. Scribner's. 215 pp. \$1.50.

Scattered Leaves. By Andreas Bard. German Literary Board. Burlington, Iowa. 62 pp. 35 cents.

## PLAYS IN BOOK FORM

"**M**ARTA OF THE LOWLANDS,"<sup>2</sup> a play in three acts, by Angel Guimerá, came to the American theaters by way of Mexico. At the time of the Galveston disaster it was produced in Mexico City as a benefit for the stricken American city by Mexico's leading actress, Virginia Fabregas, and her husband, Francisco Cardona. It has since been presented by Mrs. Fiske, Martin Harvey, and others, and has been seen in France, Italy, Germany, Servia, and South America. Its story forms the base of the opera of d'Albert entitled "Tiefland."

*Marta*, a peasant girl living in the mountainous region of Catalonia, in Spain, has suffered wrong at the hands of *Sebastian*, a landed proprietor. *Sebastian* must marry a rich woman, to hold his titles intact, and he conceives the plan of marrying *Marta* to an ignorant shepherd, who shall be merely a cover for his own continuing guilt. The shepherd, *Manelich*, is brought from the mountains and *Marta* against her will is married to him. But the unexpected happens; *Manelich* loves *Marta*, and the girl, touched by his magnanimity and goodness, loves him in return and refuses to live a life of shame with *Sebastian*. The shepherd has killed wolves who came for the sheep in his mountain pasturage, and so he kills the "lowland wolf," *Sebastian*, when he would destroy the pure and holy love that has arisen between man and wife. *Marta* tells the villagers who have laughed at her shame: "I want to go with him,—with my husband,—up there where there are no people,—where there is no one to laugh at us. And when we reach the highest peak, if we still hear you laughing, we'll go higher yet; and when we come to where God is, no one will laugh at us, for there are love and forgiveness." As a whole the play symbolizes the great Christian doctrine of salvation and the remission of sin through the power of repentance and love.

Angel Guimerá first won reputation as a poet, although his fame rests upon his dramatic work. He is the first writer of Catalan dialect to bring his literature to the attention of the entire world. His plays have been translated into more than twenty languages. Wallace Gillpatrick, who has translated "Marta" from the Spanish of José Echegaray into English, writes in the preface: "He possesses the cosmic or world spirit; his plays are charged with the passions, sorrows, failures, triumphs of the whole human race."

Lord Dunsany, author of the most original books published in later years, the creator of a new and astounding mythology, offers in his "Plays" the most entertaining dramatic work of the day. Several critics esteem "The Gods of the Mountain,"—an ingenious exposition of the punishment of that crime held in horror by the Greeks, that of *hybridis*,—as the greatest of modern symbolic plays. No other writer has succeeded in producing a spell like unto that which holds the reader when he reaches the climax of this play and the Seven Jade Gods come down from their thrones in the mountains and turn into cold stone their feasting beggar impostors; or the surprise in the "Glittering Gate," when the burglar "jim-mies" his way through the Gate of Heaven, only to find that there is nothing beyond but an abyss of emptiness and distant stars; or the surge of the primitive that captures our veins when *King Argimenes'* hungry slave-followers, forgetful of their victory over *King Darniak* and the plenty it implies, cry out from famished stomachs "Bones!" when a messenger announces that "the King's Dog is dead." Lord Dunsany is an Irish peer, the 18th of his line, born in 1878. He served at the front with the Coldstream Guards during the Boer War.

Mr. J. O. Francis' play, "Change,"<sup>3</sup> was the initial play produced by the Welsh National Drama Company when it began its existence at

<sup>1</sup> The Gipsy Trail. Compiled by Mary D. Hopkins and Pauline Goldmark. Mitchell Kennerley. 397 pp. \$1.25 net.

<sup>2</sup> Marta of the Lowlands. By Angel Guimerá. Translated from the Spanish by Wallace Gillpatrick. Doubleday, Page. 112 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>3</sup> Five Plays. By Lord Dunsany. Mitchell Kennerley. 116 pp. \$1.25.

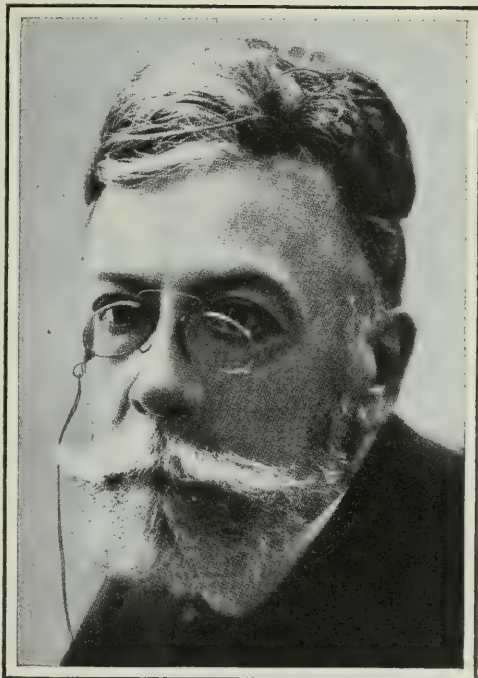
<sup>4</sup> Change. By J. O. Francis. Doubleday, Page. 147 pp. 75 cents.

Cardiff in May, 1914. "It was the first instance," Mr. Francis writes, "of a performance in Wales of a Welsh play by a professional repertory company in the history of the country." This company adopted an experiment that might be profitably acted upon in other localities, that of "taking the drama to people, where they cannot get to the drama." It is the intention of the directors to travel about, caravan fashion, with their plays, as the mystery plays and pageants traveled about in the fifteenth century. Mr. Montrose Moses has admirably summarized the action of "Change" in his preface to the play: "'Change' is national in so far as it represents truthfully the industrial situation confronting the men of South Wales now and to-morrow. It depicts with understanding and sympathy the religious, social, and economic problems likely to confront the inhabitants of a small Welsh town dependent upon the coal and iron industries for existence. In its labor disputes, in its riots, in its expression of political thought it reflects the whole trend of Welsh sentiment and development for two generations." "Change" simply states in a moving drama what Tennyson put into a poetic line,— "The old order changeth for the new."

Mr. Francis was the winner of the Lord Howard de Walden prize competition. He was born in Merthyr Tydfil, South Wales, in 1882.

Three plays by John Galsworthy,—*"The Mob,"* *"The Fugitive,"* and *"The Pigeon,"*—are issued in one volume by Charles Scribner's Sons.<sup>1</sup> Their content has been previously noted in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

*"Rada,"*<sup>2</sup> a Christmas tragedy of the Balkans, by Alfred Noyes, brings the horrors of war a



ANGEL GUIMERÀ, THE SPANISH POET AND PLAY-WRIGHT, WHOSE PLAYS HAVE BEEN TRANSLATED INTO MORE THAN TWENTY LANGUAGES

little nearer to the minds of men in a moving drama that is more eloquent in its simplicity than even the fervent stanzas of *"The Winepress."* The scene is Christmas Eve in the cottage of the village doctor in a little hamlet in the Balkan war zone. *Rada*, the wife, whose husband has been recently killed, has two soldiers of the enemy quartered upon her. She has hidden her twelve-year-old daughter *Subka* in an inner room. The two soldiers are not bad fellows at heart; they eat the Christmas feast that had been provided for the family, but they do not touch the women. Outside the soldiers riot and pillage. One of the soldiers in the house draws the curtain over the cottage window, but too late. The drunken men outside have caught sight of the women, the only two left in the village. They break in the door and demand them. *Rada* in despair shoots the child and herself. As the revolver shots ring out, the bugle calls the men away to resist the night attack of the enemy, and the artillery booms in the distance. Noyes' great art is at its best in this play. There is the constant suggestion that this incident is not an isolated instance of horror, but the every-day texture or happening of war. A tragical chorus is provided by the babbling of *Nanko*, a half-witted schoolmaster, who reiterates the ancient and outworn arguments of war and of the survival of the fittest.

If the habit of buying and reading plays were more common in this country the result would be a corresponding gain in literary taste. The public is too prone to buy the latest novel and wait for the local lecture bureau to introduce the latest play through the medium of a diluted "reading." The strong social reactions of the day are revealed



J. O. FRANCIS, THE AUTHOR OF "CHANGE"

<sup>1</sup> Plays. By John Galsworthy. Scribner's. 250 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>2</sup> *Rada*. By Alfred Noyes. Frederick Stokes. 31 pp. 60 cents.



mainly through the serious efforts of the playwrights. Take, for instance, the Comedy of Manners, "Mary Goes First,"<sup>1</sup> by that veteran artificer of plays, Henry Arthur Jones. Here is a bright, humorous satire on social climbers, most delicious whiffing concerned with the war of two women over social precedence,—a play most entertaining in its characterization and instructive in its technique. It is dedicated to Miss Marie Tempest, who is at present playing in the title rôle in New York.

Mr. J. M. Barrie publishes four of his short plays in a single volume: "Pantaloon," "The Twelve-Pound Look," "Rosalind," and "The Will."<sup>2</sup> These one-act plays are fairly familiar to those who have the privilege of attending the theater. To those who have not this opportunity they will bring agreeable and profitable half-hours. The *Rosalind* who tired of a perpetual Forest of Arden environment, and ran away to a seaside cottage and pretended to be her own mother will endure a lengthy acquaintance. Bar-

rie never in one sense creates a character; he is himself for the time being all of them,—the *Peter Pan* of playwrights, pretending whimsical adventures to us from his "Never-Never Land" of love and great understanding.

"Orthodoxy,"<sup>3</sup> by Nina Wilcox Putnam, the wife of Robert Faulkner Putnam, is a delicious trifle of a play that satirically exposes the actual thoughts of people who attend a certain small church on a Sunday morning. The unwritten emphasis of the play is this: that what we *think*, not what we say, really matters, for in the end we are what our thoughts have made us. "Orthodoxy" is a strong plea for integrity of thought as well as of speech.

"The Little King,"<sup>4</sup> by Witter Bynner, tells a pathetic story of the son of Marie Antoinette, his cruel imprisonment, the canary he loved, and his noble refusal to escape and permit a substitute to be walled up to suffer a living death. It is a strong and moving drama.

## TWO NATURE BOOKS

IT is seldom that one finds a book so apparently sectional with as universal an appeal as a book of modest Nature jottings, "Autumn Notes in Iowa,"<sup>5</sup> by Selden Lincoln Whitcomb. Not alone will those who have at some time in their lives lived in Iowa, be stirred by this book of memories of "flower and bird loved in childhood," for so widely diffused are our native flora and fauna that Nature-lovers anywhere in the United States or Canada will find on some page a reminder of that which to them will be familiar and delightful. The chapters trace the progress of September, October, and November in Iowa, and while the material is mostly concerned with flowers and plants there is much of human interest. One sees farmers' wagons rattling to town, the county fairs with their encampments of gypsies, college boys singing on moonlight evenings, wild geese moving southward through the purple haze of the evening skies, hears their honking, and beneath it the dry rustle among the leaves of the cool autumn wind. Every sentence is keyed to convey the sense-impression of the brilliant but melancholy decline of the year. One may gather a lesson from this diary of serenity,—that we may escape our subjective sorrows at will and find renewing in the objectiveness of Nature's most fa-

miliar scene; and thus make once again our pact with the "primitive," even though it be only by the taste of a "puckery" persimmon or by the flash of a dandelion in the lane.

"The Human Side of Plants,"<sup>6</sup> by Royal Dixon, a well-known naturalist, tells us much about the nature and habits of plants that we have been slow to realize, namely, that they are very complex, and, with certain differences, created like unto ourselves with human attributes and passions. Plants eat, smell, rest, sleep, steal, defend themselves, swim, navigate the air, fish, keep servants, kidnap, foretell the weather, and carry life insurance. Of their mentality and spirituality, Mr. Dixon writes: "If a dividing line cannot be drawn between the lower forms of plant and animal life, how can an intelligence be assigned to the one in its higher forms without a similar power being attributed to the other" . . . "The old Greeks and Romans gave to trees and plants the spirits of gods and men; and many in more modern times have lavishly bestowed souls upon plants, as did Adamson, Bonnet, Hedwig, and Edward Smith. Martius and Fechner in Germany defended these views, and were very liberal in their supply of souls to plants." The material of this book is presented in a spirit of tenderness and reverence, with the hope that it may instill into our minds respect for the Divine Source of all life. As a book of Nature-study for the growing boy or girl, as a book of wonder for the adult, it cannot be too highly praised or recommended.

<sup>1</sup> *Mary Goes First*. By Henry Arthur Jones. Doubleday, Page. 162 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>2</sup> *Half-Hours*. By J. M. Barrie. Scribner's. 207 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> *Orthodoxy*. By Nina Wilcox Putnam. Mitchell Kennerley. 49 pp. 60 cents.

<sup>4</sup> *The Little King*. By Witter Bynner. Mitchell Kennerley. 76 pp. 60 cents.

<sup>5</sup> *Autumn Notes in Iowa*. By Selden Lincoln Whitcomb. Torch Press, Cedar Rapids, Ia. 192 pp.

<sup>6</sup> *The Human Side of Plants*. By Royal Dixon. Ill. in color. Stokes. 201 pp. \$1.40.

## MUSIC AND PAINTING

THE rapidly growing literature about music and musicians is greatly and beautifully enriched by the autobiography of Mme. Lilli Lehmann, which, originally published in German last year, has just appeared in a good English translation by Alice Benedict Seligman under the happily worded title, "My Path Through Life."<sup>1</sup>

Born in 1848, of parents who were opera singers, Lilli Lehmann was trained from infancy for the operatic stage, and made her first appearance when only fourteen, singing in the chorus of a little private theater in Prague, where, on October 20, 1865, at the National Theater, she sang the part of the first boy in "The Magic Flute." Between that date and her retirement from the stage forty-five years later she acquired and sang the enormous, perhaps unprecedented, repertory of 150 parts in 114 different operas. For long years she was an indefatigable worker in the cause of Wagner. Hers was the first voice heard at the first great festival at Bayreuth in 1876, when the *Nibelungen Ring* had its initial presentation, when she sang the part of the first Rhine Maiden in *Das Rheingold*. At the same festival she impersonated one of the Valkyries in *Die Walküre*, and sang the music of the Forest Bird in *Siegfried*. Later on, of course, she became famous for her interpretations of all the Wagner heroines. She toured America no less than nine times, singing in both opera and concert, and became as well known and as great a public favorite here as in the musical capitals of Europe.

To the lover of good music a new book about music by Lawrence Gilman is welcome whenever it comes, not alone because Mr. Gilman invariably has something to say that is worthy of attention, and says it gracefully, but no less because he is splendidly and encouragingly free from those prejudices of ultra-conservatism which hold most music critics fast in the slough of stagnation and make them belittlers and contemners of the new simply because it is new. It is of new things, the new elements and new forces in music, the new men of the present time, that Mr. Gilman writes in "Nature in Music and Other Studies in the Tone-Poetry of To-Day."<sup>2</sup> He is never afraid to praise new music when he deems it praiseworthy; neither is he ashamed to give you his reasons for praising it. He discourses entertainingly and delightfully,—revealingly, because with sympathy and insight,—of such moderns as MacDowell, Richard Strauss, Debussy, Vincent d'Indy, Loeffler, Montemizzi. And there is a welcome appraisal of Grieg's place in music, accounting him a master by reason of his individuality, not his nationalism. Repetitious promulgation of the doctrine of nationalism in music has worked injury to the fame of other composers also besides Grieg.

Romain Rolland, the creator of "Jean-Christophe," who has won world-wide fame through his colossal novel in ten volumes devoted to the life of that musical hero, was the foremost musical critic and historian of Paris, and was recognized as such, for many years before he became a

novelist. Thanks to the success of "Jean-Christophe" in England and America, we now have for the first time a volume of essays by him, Englished by Mary Blaiklock and entitled "Musicians of To-Day."<sup>3</sup> The original version of this volume was published in Paris six years ago. But no matter for that. It is a collection of papers,—keenly critical, but glowing, fervent, and frequently rhapsodical,—of absorbing interest and quite unusual value. They show a remarkably close acquaintance with the lives as well as the works of the musicians of whom they treat, who are, namely: Berlioz, Wagner, Saint-Saëns, Vincent d'Indy, Richard Strauss, Hugo Wolf, Don Lorenzo Perosi, and Claude Debussy. There are also an essay on French and German Music and a Sketch of the Musical Movement in Paris since 1870, which the author calls "The Awakening," and which he has brought down to date for this English translation. M. Rolland was a good Wagnerite, a lover of German music and its apostle to his countrymen.

In "Essentials in Music History,"<sup>4</sup> Thomas Tapper and Percy Goetschius, well-known instructors in New York institutions, have produced a concise and useful summary of the development of music. Beginning with the antiquities of music, a clear outline is provided of what is known of the music of ancient nations and primitive peoples, and this is followed by a simple and naturally consecutive account of the rise and progress of artistic music from the Old French School, the earliest school of contrapuntal art, to the present era; a brief final chapter being devoted to music in America. A very serviceable bibliography of the whole subject, under the heading "The Essentials of a Music Library," is contributed by Frank H. Marling. There are many illustrations which are helpful.

A well printed and illustrated volume on "The Art of the Low Countries,"<sup>5</sup> by Wilhelm R. Valentiner, a member of the staff of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York and the editor of *Art in America* (translated from the German by Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer), comprises a group of studies intended primarily for the connoisseur and the student, but no means devoid of interest for "the general reader" who cares for pictures. Particularly interesting to such will be chapters that treat in extenso of the paintings by Rubens and by Van Dyck that are now owned in America. Rembrandt's art is also discussed in several chapters, and some of his pictures that are owned here are considered. The whole book, based upon recent investigations and the newest canons of art criticism, deals with the primitive painters of Holland, and the later masters of the Low Countries, in authoritative fashion, and throws new light on many of the treasures of American museums and private galleries. An appendix contains lists as full and complete as possible of the masterpieces of the Dutch and Flemish "primitives" and of the works by Rembrandt, Rubens, and Van Dyck now in the public and private collections of this country.

<sup>1</sup> My Path Through Life. By Lilli Lehmann. Translated by Alice Benedict Seligman. Putnam. 510 pp. \$3.50.

<sup>2</sup> Nature in Music and Other Studies in the Tone-Poetry of To-Day. By Lawrence Gilman. Lane. 220 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> Musicians of To-Day. By Romain Rolland. Holt. \$1.25.

<sup>4</sup> Essentials in Music History. By Thomas Tapper and Percy Goetschius. Scribners. 365 pp., ill. \$2.

<sup>5</sup> The Art of the Low Countries. By W. R. Valentiner. Doubleday, Page. 251 pp., ill. \$2.50.



# CLASSIFIED LISTS OF NEW PUBLICATIONS

## HISTORY

**The French Revolution in San Domingo.** By T. Lothrop Stoddard. Houghton Mifflin Company. 410 pp. \$2.

Readers of this REVIEW will remember a remarkably able article which appeared in the number for last June, entitled "Santo Domingo: Our Unruly Ward," from the pen of Mr. T. Lothrop Stoddard. Mr. Stoddard's studies of international politics are thorough and valuable, as further shown in more recent articles in this REVIEW on Greece and Italy. He was the author, also, of our article on the mobilization of European armies, in the September number. Mr. Stoddard is a young writer who has recently completed his work as a post-graduate student at Harvard, and his first book now appears, under the title "The French Revolution in San Domingo." Toussaint l'Ouverture has been a picturesque and interesting figure, best known to Americans by reason of a lecture that Wendell Phillips used to deliver in every part of the country. But no one has ever given us the real history of the race struggle in San Domingo that was associated with the political cataclysm in France in 1789 and the following years. Mr. Stoddard's book is a most remarkable example of careful investigation and graphic writing. A more valuable contribution to the history of the conflict of races and to the literature of the checkered fortunes of modern colonial empire has not been written in a long time.

**The Philippines Past and Present.** By Dean C. Worcester. Macmillan. 2 Vols. 1024 pp., ill. \$6.

This work was reviewed at length in our number for April, 1914. The revised edition contains a prefatory chapter on "One Year of the 'New Era'" (government of the islands under the Wilson Administration).

**Westminster Abbey: Its Architecture, History and Monuments.** By Helen Marshall Pratt. Duffield. 2 Vols. 865 pp., ill. \$4.50.

A painstaking work, by the author of "The Cathedral Churches of England."

**Russian Expansion on the Pacific 1641-1850.** By F. A. Golder. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Company. 368 pp., ill. \$5.

The only authoritative study of this subject published in any language during the past century and a half.

**The Story of Dartmouth.** By Wilder D. Quint. Little, Brown. 285 pp., ill. \$2.

An interesting account of the development of the college. Illustrations are supplied by John A. Seaford.

**Essays Political and Historical.** By Charlesmange Tower. Lippincott. 306 pp. \$1.50.

A volume of essays by our former Ambassador to Russia and to Germany. The United States as a world power is the central theme.

**Insurgent Mexico.** By John Reed. Appleton. 326 pp. \$1.50.

Vivid pictures of the Mexican people in war and peace.

**How to Teach American History.** By John W. Wayland. Macmillan. 349 pp. \$1.10.

A handbook for teachers and students, designed especially as a text-book in teachers' training schools.

**Americans and the Britons.** By Frederick C. de Sumichrast. Appleton. 369 pp. \$1.75.

An appreciation of the American democracy by a former professor at Harvard who is now a resident of England.

**The Story of Our Navy.** By William O. Stevens. Harpers. 316 pp., ill. \$1.50.

An account of the growth of the American navy, written by one of the professors at the Naval Academy.

**The Treasure Finders.** By Oliver Clay. Duffield. 266 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Stories of the men who found America,—French, Spanish, English, Dutch, and Norse explorers.

**Mexican Archæology.** By Thomas A. Joyce. Putnam. 384 pp., ill. \$4.

A good illustrated summary of our present knowledge concerning the life and culture of the Mexican and Maya peoples of pre-Spanish America, prepared by a member of the British Museum staff.

**The Renaissance, the Protestant Revolution, and the Catholic Reformation in Continental Europe.** By Edward Maslin Hulme. Century. 589 pp. \$2.50.

A well-written treatment of this important period in European history, for which Professor Burr, of Cornell, is sponsor.

**Bulfinch's Mythology.** By Thomas Bulfinch. Crowell. 912 pp., ill. \$1.50.

"The Age of Fable," "The Age of Chivalry," and "Legends of Charlemagne," complete in one volume.

**Famous Land Fights.** By A. Hillard Atteridge. Little, Brown. 329 pp., ill. \$2.

A popular sketch\* of the development of land fighting from the early tribal warfare to our own day. Typical battles have been selected as examples of the varying methods of fighting.

**The Political and Sectional Influence of the Public Lands 1828-1842.** By Raynor G. Wellington. Riverside Press. 131 pp. \$1.

A treatise showing how the public lands, owing to the growth of sections having conflicting economic interests, became a subject for political bargainings and sectional alliances.

**Constantine the Great and Christianity.** By

Christopher Bush Coleman. New York: The Columbia University Press. 258 pp. \$2.

A discussion of the historic facts in Constantine's career and also of what the author calls "the historic ghost of Constantine," i. e., the legendary and the spurious elements in the record of his life that has come down to us.

**The New Map of Europe.** By Herbert Adams Gibbons. Century. 412 pp. \$2.

In a summary of the political history of Europe for the past ten years the author, for some years Professor of History at Robert College, Constantinople, and correspondent of the *New York Herald* in the Near East, maintains that the foreign policies of England, France, Russia, Austria and Germany have made the present war inevitable. In this volume he essays to show the processes by which these foreign policies brought on the conflict.

**Italy's Foreign and Colonial Policy.** By Tomaso Tittoni. Translated by Baron Bernardo Quaranta di San Severino. London: Smith, Elder & Company. 334 pp.

A selection from the speeches of Senator Tomaso Tittoni while he was Italy's Foreign Minister. These speeches show the foundations of Italy's foreign policy to have been "to maintain and uphold the Triple Alliance, and to uphold and consolidate our sincere friendship with England and France." The second half of the book is devoted to the Italian colonial administration, with particular reference to emigration.

**A Revelation of the Chinese Revolution.** By John J. Mullooney. Revell. 142 pp., ill., 75 cents.

The writer of this volume, who has spent several years in China, holds that the real leader of the recent Chinese revolution was General Hwang Hsing. The idea is to show how men of this stamp have been more symptomatic of the Chinese state of mind and receptiveness to modern ideas than the President, Yuan Shih-kai, whom Mr. Mullooney calls a despot and dictator.

## BOOKS CALLED OUT BY THE WAR

**The World War.** By Elbert Francis Baldwin. Macmillan. 267 pp. \$1.25.

Mr. Baldwin, an accomplished and experienced member of the *Outlook's* editorial staff, was in Europe at the outbreak of the war. All save the final chapter of the present volume was written in Europe and interprets the varied points of view of the nations engaged in the conflict.

**Britain as Germany's Vassal.** By Friedrich von Bernhardt. Translated by J. Ellis Barker. Doran. 256 pp. \$1.

This book appeared one year later than "Germany and the Next War," Bernhardt's best-known book, but by many students of his works is regarded as the more important volume of the two. It makes definite application of the doctrines developed in the author's earlier treatise, with special reference to the position of England as a world power and hated rival of Germany. Those who are eager to find the essence of the German militarist prophet's theories will find it embodied here in its extreme form.

**Deutschland Uber Alles, or Germany Speaks.** Compiled by John Jay Chapman. 102 pp. 75 cents.

Rightly believing that a study of the ephemeral literature of the period is essential to an understanding of the underlying causes of the war, Mr. Chapman has made a collection of the utterances of representative Germans,—statesmen, military leaders, scholars, and poets,—in defense of the war policies of the Fatherland.

**The Real "Truth About Germany" from the English Point of View.** By Douglas Sladen. With an appendix Great Britain and the War. By A. Maurice Low. Putnam. 272 pp. \$1.

This is an analysis and a refutation, from the English point of view, of the pamphlet "The Truth About Germany," recently issued by representative German citizens. The author, Douglas Sladen, has reprinted the text of the German pamphlet in ordinary type, and at places where he controverts statements, he has inserted in black face type his own comments.

**Builder and Blunderer: A Study of Emperor Wilhelm's Character and Foreign Policy.** By George Saunders. Dutton. 205 pp. \$1.

This is a shrewd and well-informed analysis of the German Kaiser's career. The author has had unusual opportunities to study the personality and policies of the Emperor since he ascended the throne. Mr. Saunders was the Berlin correspondent of the *Morning Post* in the years 1888-1897 and of the *London Times* in 1897-1908. His point of view is, of course, distinctly British, yet he has written an entertaining and, on the whole, a reasonable appraisal of William II.

## BIOGRAPHY AND AUTOBIOGRAPHY

**The Kaiser: A Book About the Most Interesting Man in Europe.** Edited by Asa Don Dickinson. Doubleday, Page. 205 pp., ill. \$2.

Various aspects of the German Emperor's career treated by men who have given special study to the topics of which they write.

**The War Lord.** Compiled by J. M. Kennedy. Duffield. 95 pp. 50 cents.

A selection from the speeches, letters, and telegrams of Emperor William II.

**The Story-Life of Napoleon.** By Wayne Whipple. Century. 606 pp., ill. \$2.40.

Nine hundred short stories from a great variety of sources reconciled and fitted together in a complete and continuous biography.

**The Life of Henry II.** By L. F. Salzmänn. Houghton Mifflin. 267 pp., ill. \$2.50.

**The Life of Henry VII.** By W. M. Gladys Temperley. Houghton Mifflin. 453 pp., ill. \$2.50.

**Letters of Fyodor Michailovitch Dostoevsky to His Family and Friends.** Translated by Ethel Colburn Mayne. Macmillan. 344 pp., ill. \$2.

The first English translation of the letters of the great Russian novelist, who wrote "Crime and Punishment."



**Emile Verhaeren.** By Stefan Zweig. Houghton Mifflin. 274 pp., ill. \$2.

A sympathetic study of the life and work of Belgium's greatest living poet by one of his contemporaries, an Austrian poet.

**"Billy" Sunday: The Man and His Message.** By William T. Ellis. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company. 432 pp., ill. \$1.50.

A character sketch of one of the most conspicuous religious leaders of the day in America.

**The Famous Mather Byles 1707-1788.** By Arthur Wentworth Hamilton Eaton. Boston: W. A. Butterfield. 258 pp., ill. \$2.

The first complete biography of the noted Boston Tory preacher, poet, and wit. Dr. Byles was one of the leaders of the Boston faction which stoutly opposed the Revolution.

**Days of My Years.** By Sir Melville L. Macnaghten. Longmans, Green. 300 pp. \$3.50.

Interesting reminiscences by the late chief detective of Scotland Yard.

**Giosue Carducci.** By Orlo Williams. Houghton Mifflin. 123 pp. 75 cents.

A brief sketch of the Italian poet in the series of "Modern Biographies."

**Nat Goodwin's Book.** By Nat C. Goodwin. Badger. 366 pp., ill. \$3.

Personal and intimate recollections of stage celebrities who have entertained American audiences during the past forty years.

**Little Women Letters from the House of Alcott.** Selected by Jessie Bonstelle and Marian De Forest. Little, Brown. 197 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Letters revealing the childhood and home life of the Alcott family.

**Heroines of History.** By Frank M. Bristol. New York: The Abingdon Press. 289 pp. \$1.  
Heroines of mythology, of Shakespeare, and of the Bible.

**More Than Conquerors.** By Ariadne Gilbert. Century. 423 pp., ill. \$1.25.

A series of biographical sketches written for young people and originally published in *St. Nicholas*. Among the subjects are Lincoln, Charles Lamb, Walter Scott, Emerson, Beethoven, Pasteur, Phillips Brooks, and Robert Louis Stevenson.

**Famous Affinities of History.** By Lyndon Orr. Harpers. 368 pp., ill. \$2.

The love stories of Anthony and Cleopatra, Abelard and Heloise, Queen Elizabeth and Leicester, Mary Queen of Scots and Bothwell, and other paired celebrities whose relations have figured on history's page.

**Samuel F. B. Morse: His Letters and Journals.** Edited by Edward Lind Morse. Houghton Mifflin. 2 Vols. 988 pp., ill. \$7.50.

The first adequate biography of the inventor of the electric telegraph. The first volume treats of Morse's art studies in America and Europe and his career as a painter; the second describes in detail his work on the telegraph.

**Charles Stewart Parnell: A Memoir.** By John Howard Parnell. Holt. 312 pp. \$3.

This memoir of the great Home Ruler by his brother is especially rich in details of Parnell's early life, education, and home life.

**Oscar Wilde and Myself.** By Lord Alfred Douglas. Duffield. 306 pp., ill. \$2.50.

An attempt to state the true nature and circumstances of the friendship between Wilde and the Marquis of Queensberry's son.

## TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

**A Wanderer in Venice.** By E. V. Lucas. Macmillan. 322 pp., ill. \$1.75.

Pleasing descriptions of the architectural features and landmarks,—as well as water-marks,—of Venice, illustrated with drawings by Harry Morley and reproductions of paintings.

**The Lower Amazon.** By Algot Lange. With an Introduction by Frederick S. Dellinbaugh. Putnam. 468 pp., ill. \$2.50.

"A narrative of explorations in the little-known regions of the State of Pará, on the lower Amazon, with a record of archæological excavations on Marajó Island at the mouth of the Amazon River, and observations on the general resources of the country," by a former official of the Brazilian Bureau of Indian Affairs.

**Seven Years on the Pacific Slope.** By Mrs. Hugh Fraser and Hugh Crawford Fraser. Dodd, Mead. 391 pp., ill. \$3.

A vivid account of life in the extreme north-western corner of Washington State,—a bit of the surviving frontier.

**Abroad at Home.** By Julian Street. Century. 517 pp., ill. \$2.50.

Julian Street, writer, and Wallace Morgan, artist, make the trip from New York to San Francisco and back, stopping at many of the principal cities and getting frequent glimpses of life outside the cities. The result is a moving picture of American civilization in its human and humorous aspects. Fifty clever drawings are contributed to the volume by Mr. Morgan.

**The East I Know.** By Paul Claudel. Translated by Teresa Frances and William Rose Benet. Yale University Press. 199 pp. \$1.25.

A series of vivid word pictures of life in the Far East by a poet who is, at the same time, a very keen observer. This is a translation of M. Claudel's "La Connaissance de l'Est."

## ECONOMICS AND SOCIOLOGY

**The Juvenile Court and the Community.** By Thomas D. Eliot. Macmillan. 234 pp. \$1.25.

An authoritative account of the achievements of the juvenile court, with conclusions as to its success.

**Safeguards for City Youth at Work and at Play.** By Louise de Koven Bowen. Macmillan. 241 pp. \$1.50.

An exposition of the spirit, methods, and purpose of the Juvenile Protective Association of

**Chicago.** Miss Jane Addams has written a preface for the volume.

**The World's Social Evil.** By William Burgess. Chicago: Saul Brothers. 401 pp. \$1.50.

An historical review and study of the various problems related to the subject. Dr. Graham Taylor writes a foreword and a supplementary chapter on "A Constructive Policy" is contributed by Judge Olson, of Chicago.

**The Old World in the New.** By Edward Alsworth Ross. Century. 327 pp., ill. \$2.40.

A vivid presentation of our immigration in its racial, social, political, and economic aspects.

**American Labor Unions.** By Helen Marot. Holt. 275 pp. \$1.25.

A clear statement, from the inside, of the policies and principles of unionism. The author is a member of a union and evidently knows her subject.

**The Girl and Her Chance.** By Harriet McDoual Daniels. 95 pp. 50 cents.

A study of conditions surrounding the young girl between fourteen and eighteen years of age in New York City.

**The Cause of Business Depression.** By Hugo Bilgram and Louis Edward Levy. Lippincott. 531 pp. \$2.

**The Tariff.** By Lee Francis Lybarger. Chicago: The Platform. 399 pp., ill. \$1.50.

"What It Is; How It Works; Whom It Benefits."

**The Whole Truth About the Tariff.** By George L. Bolen. Battle Creek, Mich: Phoenix Publishing Company. 307 pp. 50 cents.

Besides the tariff discussion this pamphlet contains a chapter on the first year's achievements of the Wilson Administration.

**International Trade and Exchange.** By Harry G. Brown. Macmillan. 197 pp. \$1.50.

In this volume an instructor in political economy at Yale University discusses the theory of international and intranational trade, with due consideration of the exchange mechanism of such trade and with some reference to the effects of governmental interferences.

**The Principles of Taxation.** By Hastings Lyon. Houghton Mifflin. 133 pp. 75 cents.

A compact treatise on American taxation, written by the counsel of the Investment Bankers' Association.

**Taxation in Washington.** Seattle: University of Washington. 302 pp. 50 cents.

Papers and discussions of a State Tax Conference held at the University of Washington in May, 1914.

**Your Pay Envelope.** By John R. Meader. New York: The Devin-Adair Company. 221 pp. \$1.

A proposed non-socialistic solution of the labor problem.

**Biology and Social Problems.** By George Howard Parker. Houghton Mifflin. 130 pp., ill. \$1.10.

Lectures delivered at Amherst College as a memorial to Dr. William Brewster Clark, a graduate of the college.

**Beauty for Ashes.** By Albion Fellows Bacon. Dodd, Mead. 360 pp., ill. \$1.50.

The graphic story of how one woman found disgraceful slum conditions existing in small cities and towns and made a fight that resulted in placing her State, Indiana, at the head of the list in the matter of building regulations.

**Social Heredity and Social Evolution.** By Herbert William Conn. New York: The Abingdon Press. 348 pp. \$1.50.

A book intended by the author to show that the laws of evolution in animals and plants apply to human evolution up to a certain point, beyond which man has been under distinct laws of his own,—in other words, "social heredity."

**Honest Business.** By Amos Kidder Fiske. Putnam. 333 pp. \$1.25.

Essays by the editor of the *New York Journal of Commerce* on the conditions underlying business organization and the principles controlling business operations.

## OTHER TIMELY BOOKS

**Japan to America.** Edited by Naoichi Masaoka. Putnam. 235 pp. \$1.25.

A symposium of informational essays illuminatingly written on the present conditions in Japan, the ideals and policies of Japanese leaders, and the relation of the Island Empire to the United States. The volume is issued under the auspices of the Japan Society of America, and has been edited by Professor Masaoka, who has gathered together the writings of many representative Japanese.

**Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles.** By William Atherton DuPuy. Stokes. 268 pp., ill. \$1.25.

A record of the big things the United States Government is doing for its citizens, for commerce and trade generally, and for the world. Some of the chapter headings indicate the scope: Conquering Contagion; Awakening the Filipino; Revealing Weather Secrets; Transforming Western Deserts; Taking the Census; Shackling the Mississippi, etc.

**A Doctor's View-point.** By John B. Huber. New York: Gazette Publishing Company. 164 pp. \$1.

Most doctors are human,—except when writing for publication; then their human attributes seem to shrivel up and disappear. This is not true, however, of the published writings of Dr. John B. Huber, whose abounding humanness can no more be restrained by cold type than by any other form of strait-jacket. His little book of essays,—"A Doctor's View-point,"—is human from cover to cover, dealing with the problems of everyday living as the physician "meets up" with them. Needless to say, such writing makes easy reading and will make an optimist of any man who will let his common sense have free play. The initial essay of the book, "A Twentieth Century Epic," is a thrilling account of the latter-day progress of preventive medicine which Dr. Huber originally contributed to this REVIEW.



# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—HOW SOUND SECURITIES ARE BEHAVING

IN the last month prices and values of sound American securities have been tested as perhaps never before. The gradual resumption of normal trading in stocks and bonds was described in the December issue of this magazine, but since its publication the restoration of normal trading has gone much further. Even early in December most of the country's stock exchanges had reopened for unrestricted operations, and only upon the few great markets where European holders of American securities might be expected to liquidate was there any restraint still in force upon the full operation of the immutable laws of supply and demand. On December 12 the New York Stock Exchange resumed dealing in stocks.

### *Opening of the New York Stock Exchange*

One man has described the step-by-step resumption of unrestricted business on the New York Stock Exchange as similar to the first five-minute walk of a convalescent. Most important of the limitations that were placed upon the freedom of what a great economist has called the "higgling of the market" was the establishment of minimum prices under the cognizance and arrangement of a committee. Yet the fact of supreme importance is that the first few weeks of business brought no war-impelled torrent of sales. Minimum prices were in many cases not reached at all, and if there had been a flood of sales all prices would naturally have been quickly driven to the minimum and kept there. Instead there was trading in moderate volume, entire calmness, and a general upward trend in prices.

The New York Exchange was not opened for all stocks at once. A large number of shares, including those extensively held in Europe, were still kept in the Stock Exchange Clearing House, where clerks merely received bids and offers from brokers and notified brokers when the bids and offers came near enough together to warrant a transaction. In other words, on the day the Exchange permitted open trading to its members in a limited number of stocks on its floor, many other stocks were still withheld from that privilege. But such a demand de-

veloped for even the restricted stocks that the cumbrous Clearing House machinery almost broke down, and on the following day all stocks were restored to open floor trading.

Another step was the dissolution of the Committee of Five, which since the Exchange closed on July 30, had possessed arbitrary power. The same men were formed into another committee to supervise minimum prices. But while minimum prices were still in effect well along in December, it was significant that no really severe declines had yet taken place even in the stocks most extensively held abroad.

### *Steadiness of Prices*

In the September issue of this REVIEW it was stated: "Owners of sound securities have no occasion to be alarmed. . . . Many new projects will be abandoned or halted from lack of European capital, but bonds of American municipalities or mortgage bonds of seasoned American corporations will, with few exceptions, suffer no loss in intrinsic value because they rest upon the earning power of basic industries."

Clearly this view has been substantiated by events of the last three months, and especially by the opening of the stock and bond markets. When the war started fear was expressed that destruction of capital, together with the raising of great European war loans, would result in such a dumping of foreign holdings of American securities as to bring about chaos. Fearing such a possibility the Stock Exchange closed for several months. But the passing of time has greatly altered the first gloomy view, and now authorities agree that all danger of bursting dams has either been done away with or provided for. Indeed, one financial house has estimated that between August 1 and December 1, during nearly all of which period the Stock Exchange remained closed, nearly \$750,000,000 of securities were taken up by American investors and withdrawn from the market.

It is safe to say that the strength of bond and stock prices during the weeks that exchanges were gradually opening has been a surprise to thousands of investors,—even

if a pleasant surprise. There is no way of being so gratified by an agreeable outcome as to expect something quite different. But many people are puzzled, having been led to expect steadily falling prices.

The important fact to remember is that bond and stock prices alike had fallen very low before the exchanges closed. Markets the world over had for perhaps two years been "discounting" the coming war, or at least expressing fear that the unsettled political conditions which followed the two Balkan wars might not be satisfactorily settled. Taking a group of the highest grade railroad bonds, it may be noted that, while they were higher early in December than they had been on June 30, they still averaged five points below the highest of 1914 and seven points below the highest level of 1913. Moreover, great numbers of bonds have recently been but a trifle above the lowest in the 1907 panic, and indeed before the war started many comparisons were made between prices at that time with those of 1907 and showing but little variation. If the same group of bonds before referred to is again considered it will be found that an average decline of no less than fifteen points since 1905 has been recorded. Yet all of these bonds are as safe as anything human can be. They are the Atchison general 4's, Louisville & Nashville unified 4's, Northern Pacific prior lien 4's, Reading general 4's, and Union Pacific land grant 4's.

Most investors are far too much inclined to follow market prices and judge the value of their holdings accordingly. The closing of the markets, the grave doubts that went with such action, and the groundlessness of those doubts have again emphasized the fact that quotations are too often mistaken for values. In reality the real principal value of a good bond does not fluctuate at all any more than a mortgage. If the issuing corporation is able to redeem the bond when it comes due the obligation is always worth par, just as a mortgage is worth par if the debtor is able to pay it off. The only thing that really happens to a good bond is that the interest rate rises or falls. Bonds should be quoted not in dollars or in per cent. of face value, but to yield a rate of interest. Indeed, in the last few years certain classes of bonds, railroad-equipment trust certificates, have come to be quoted almost solely in terms of a rate of interest. The investor buys a 4½ or a 5 per cent., as the case may be.

The long closing of the Stock Exchange has had one good effect, namely, to reduce

the amount of speculation. Speculation may not necessarily be a bad thing for a country, but it is often a bad thing for the individual investor. Too many buyers of securities, even those who purchase bonds, are more anxious to be able to sell at a profit later than to make their money work steadily for them at a fair rate of interest. But when the Stock Exchange closed, brokers at once set to work to persuade their customers to take up securities which had been bought on margin, that is, on part payment. Brokers themselves were being urged by their banks to pay off loans, and this they have been able to do to an enormous extent by making their customers pay up. The result has been that the Stock Exchange has opened with brokers in a strong position and with few speculative commitments.

#### *Business on a Cash Basis*

Moreover, as business is resumed it is being done almost entirely on a cash basis, or nearly so. This will stimulate the spirit of investment and discourage the tendency to speculate. Indeed, the whole trend of recent events has been to encourage the purchase of securities which are able to earn and pay steady returns, rather than those whose only appeal is directed dangerously close to the gambling instinct. The recent strength of municipal bonds and the quick sale of such obviously high-grade securities as the Canadian Pacific equipment trust certificates are cases in point.

It has been urged in some quarters that the best American bonds would have to sell to yield 6 or even 7 per cent., because European government bonds might be sold on that basis. Thus far relatively few foreign bonds have been disposed of in this country, although there appears to be an increasing disposition to place bonds of non-belligerent countries here. Both Norway and Sweden have sold notes running for two or three years to net 6 per cent. Short-term notes always command a higher rate than long-term bonds, and, besides, an attractive interest rate was necessary to induce subscriptions in this country. Prediction is futile, but it is fairly safe to assume that Americans will not take kindly to foreign bonds. Conditions may gradually change in this respect, but the fact that European nations engaged in war, or which are hard pressed financially and commercially because their neighbors are at war, must pay high rates does not by any means prove that the best of American securities need suffer a further radical decline.



## II.—INVESTMENT INQUIRIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 601. UTILITY, VERSUS RAILROAD AND INDUSTRIAL STOCKS

Of the three general divisions, railroad, industrial, and public utility, which stocks would you suggest as the best investments at the present time?

For strictly investment purposes, public utility. We say this on the strength of the records which show the rather remarkable stability of the earning power, through good times and bad, of established utility enterprises, as a class, as compared with the rather wide fluctuation of the earning power, under similar conditions, of both railroad and industrial corporations. At a time like the present, the close relationship between the revenue producing capacity of the two latter classes of corporations is unusually sharply defined. We note depression in the steel industry, and a consequent reduction in the revenues of the railroads serving the territory in which that industry centers; a tie-up of the cotton industry, and a consequent falling off in the revenues of the cotton-carrying roads; or to speak more generally, a paralysis of the nation's export business, and a consequent slump in the earnings of all the roads connecting the manufacturing centers with the seaboard. As for the utility corporations, some of the things which they produce, such as light, heat and telephone service, have come to occupy such peculiar positions among the "necessities," that demand for them seems to be affected little, if any, by conditions like these. It is a matter of statistical record, for example, that depression affects the telephone industry as a whole merely to the extent of retarding normal growth. Practically the same thing may be said of the gas industry. The tractions are, however, more susceptible; and companies whose business comprises to any appreciable extent the furnishing of power are perhaps the most susceptible. But given a company, or consolidation of utility companies, of diversified business, and serving a community or communities of diversified population,—that is, not dependent upon one industry or division of industry,—and earning power, which is the basis of investment merit in stock is found to hold up remarkably well.

### No. 602. BONDS AND INTEREST RATES—A QUESTION FROM A BEGINNER

Will you kindly advise me what per cent. bankers get for investing money in bonds. I am inexperienced in such matters, but am contemplating the employment of some money in that way.

We do not quite understand your question. If you have reference to bankers who invest the surplus funds of their institutions for income purposes, the answer would depend somewhat upon the kind of banking in which they were engaged. Savings banks, particularly in New York and other Eastern states, are carefully regulated by law as to the kinds of investment they may make. Even under the present depressed condition of the market for bonds, the kinds of securities in which savings banks may invest their funds do not yield on the average more than  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to  $4\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. Commercial banks, when they have surplus funds to invest in bonds, are not held to such rigid rules. They would probably be able to choose now with the exercise of careful judgment safe bonds to yield between 5 and 6 per cent.

If you have reference to investment bankers, and are desirous of getting at how much they pay for the bonds they resell to their clients, your ques-

tion is one that can scarcely be answered in general terms. On some classes of bonds, like the very conservative municipal issues, for example, their margin of profit is very small. In a general way, it would be found somewhat larger on high-grade railroad bonds; and perhaps larger still on industrial and public utility bonds, depending, of course, to a large extent upon the character of the underlying security and the credit standing of the issuing companies.

### No. 603. MISSOURI, KANSAS AND TEXAS BONDS

I own some Missouri, Kansas & Texas first and refunding 4 per cent. bonds, and have become alarmed about the safety of my investment upon noting that they have dropped to 51 in market value. I would like to have you indicate the nature of the security for these bonds, and tell me the cause for their big decline.

These bonds are a second lien on some 500 miles of road, and on the first mortgage bonds of a small branch line of about 47 miles, the Denison & Washita Valley Railway. They are a first lien on terminals and equipment, estimated at the time the mortgage was made to be worth in excess of \$24,000,000. The rather disturbing decline in the price of the bonds is to be accounted for partly by the unsettlement of the general market which followed the outbreak of the European war, and partly by the more or less uncertain state of the road's finances. The "Katy," as the road is called, has maturing on May 1, 1915, an issue of \$19,000,000 short-term notes, and there has been some disposition in financial circles to feel that it may not find it an easy matter, in view of the money and investment outlook, to provide for their payment. However, it is obviously too early now to tell how this situation may be met. The road's credit is not of the highest order, but its earnings have recently been making a reasonably good showing, and are likely to continue to during the remainder of the fiscal year. We do not think there is cause for immediate concern about the refunding bonds, but from now on we would suggest that you check up as frequently as possible on developments in the road's affairs.

### No. 604. THE UNFORTUNATE ENDING OF A REAL-ESTATE INVESTING CONCERN

Some months ago you very kindly gave me information in regard to the Monaton Realty Investing Corporation, from which I gathered that it was possible the affairs of this concern might soon be settled. If there have been any new developments, or if the courts have taken definite action in connection with the concern's affairs, I should be glad to know of them, that I may take whatever action seems best in prosecuting a claim I have against the company.

To you and a number of other recent inquirers we regret to say that it is impossible to make any encouraging report regarding the status of this concern's affairs. Its promotion, from the very beginning, had aspects which were not liked by people competent to pass intelligent judgment on such matters, and which led the Investment Bureau of this magazine to caution its correspondents, generally, against investment in the company's stock and "bonds," so called. The company has gone through receivership and been practically wound up. Not long since we saw an official statement to the effect that the only tangible assets remaining amounted to between \$3000 and \$4000; whereas outstanding claims amounted to approximately \$1,500,000. It will be obvious to you that holders of the concern's securities suffer what amounts practically to total loss.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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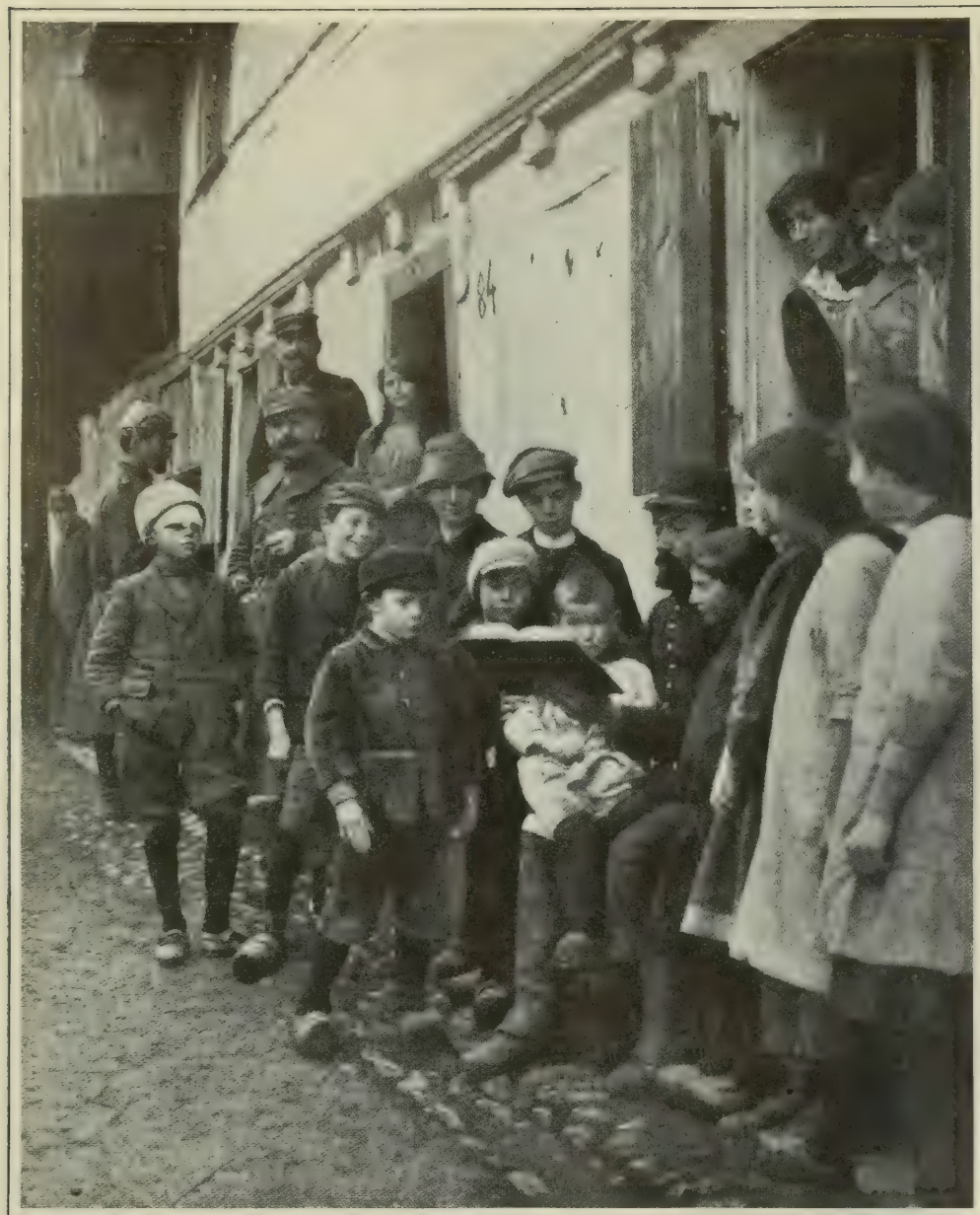
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A LESSON IN FRENCH FOR SOME LITTLE ALSATIANS AT SOPPE-LE-BAS. A FRENCH SOLDIER PLAYING THE PART OF PEDAGOGUE

(The entrance of the French troops into Alsace, during the progress of the war, brought back also into those "Lost Provinces" the language of the French people. The older generation, for whom Daudet's story of "The Last Lesson" mirrored the stern realities of the conflict of forty-four years ago, remembers with bitterness the edict that forbade the teaching of their beloved mother tongue. The young Alsatians, however, know nothing of those times, and cherish no resentment. Neither do they know much French. "They are almost completely ignorant of it," writes a correspondent in *L'Illustration*, from which our picture is taken. But "they show at this moment a true pleasure in learning it, and they are proud of displaying their two or three words of newly acquired French. As we left the valley of Massevaux," he continues, "in order to return to the Valley Largue, and Dannemarie, and Belfort, we chanced upon five or six little children, ranging in age from eight to ten, who stood at the side of the road laughing with joy, tossing their heads, and shouting out 'Vive la France!'"

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LI

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY, 1915

No. 2

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Study America  
in 1915*

Not enough Americans have yet learned to appreciate the immensity, variety, and charm of their own country. Millions of them have been learning perforce about the geography of Europe, Asia, and Africa during the past six months. It would not be amiss for them now to add the study of America to their course in political and physical geography. This will not be a good year for American travel in Europe. Only those should think of crossing the Atlantic who have clear and definite reasons of a responsible kind for approaching the fringes of the great war. Travel, however, is not only one of the greatest sources of pleasure, but one of the chief means of education; and it should always be encouraged. As many Americans as possible should resolve that they will know a great deal more about their own country at the end of the year 1915 than they knew at the beginning. They should take the idea seriously.

*The Call of  
the Great  
West*

This is a year in which the people living east of the Alleghanies ought to look westward and try to find out something about the Mississippi Valley, the vast mountain areas, and the shores of the Pacific. The people living in the Mississippi Valley know the whole country better than those of any other section, and are, indeed, our most national and cosmopolitan Americans. They are less provincial than the people of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. But as a rule they know the East and the Atlantic better than they know the farther West of mountains and Pacific. And this year they also should find themselves drawn towards the Golden Gate. The country itself, with its great natural and scenic features, its developments of agriculture, its new towns and cities, will always furnish the chief attraction for intelligent travelers. But some special occasion, like a World's Fair, may very properly stimulate and direct the tourist tide in a given season. California deserves high praise for the sagacity and confidence shown by her in

not allowing the European war to cause the postponement of the Panama-Pacific Exposition. Her courage will be rewarded.

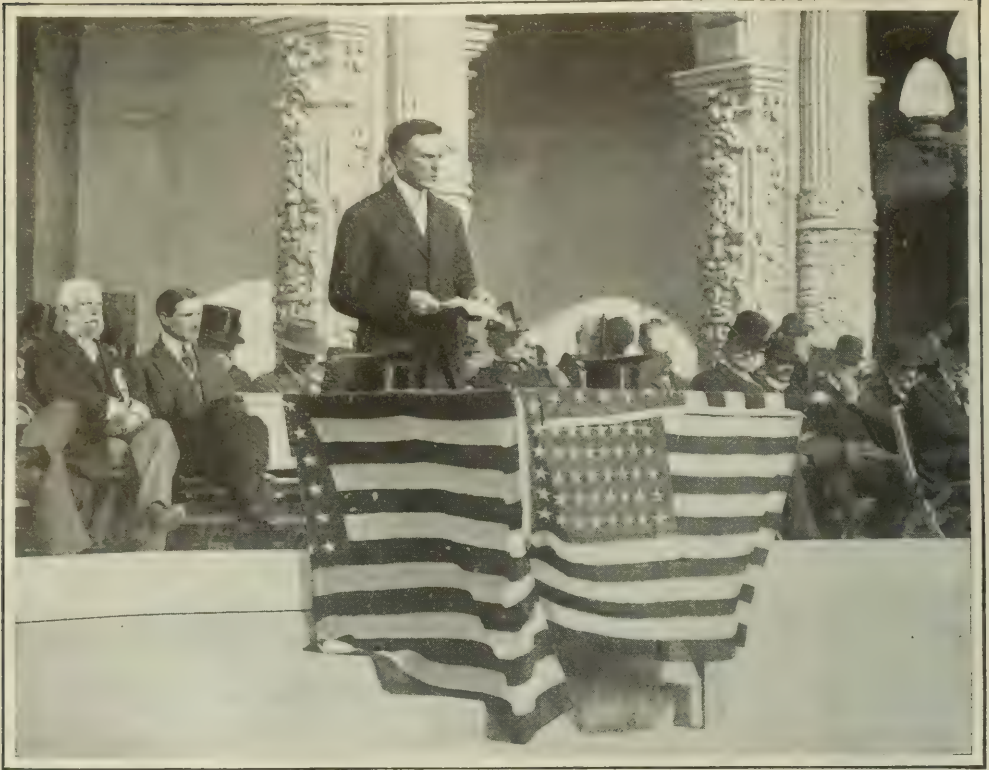
*San Francisco's  
Splendid  
Show*

There can not, of course, be so large a participation in the enterprise by foreign nations as was expected; and in some ways it will not be possible to give the Fair so rounded an international character as had been originally desired. But the undertaking has been magnificently worked out, its attractions will prove all and more than had been hoped for, and the peoples of the Western Hemisphere may well decide to make California their Mecca this year. California itself is always a realm of interest and delight to visitors, particularly from the Eastern part of the United States, because of its almost inconceivable range of climate, scenery, and products both natural and cultivated. Northward from San Francisco are fertile valleys, lofty mountains, and vast forests. Southward are areas of specialized products, particularly on irrigated land. Still farther south are the orchards of oranges and other citrus fruits; and in the mild sub-tropical climate of the Mexican border almost everything possible will grow, wherever water can be supplied. California is a wonderland.

*San Diego  
Also  
Celebrates*

The chief port and most flourishing town of the extreme south is San Diego; and this enterprising city offers to the world an exposition of its own, which threw open its doors with the beginning of the present year. This San Diego undertaking (known officially as the Panama-California Exposition) should by no means be overlooked. Its architecture fittingly follows the style of an old Spanish town. A Spanish mission, indeed, was located at San Diego in the period when the Franciscan pioneers were establishing their centers in California and the Southwest. The visitor who plans to see something of the Pacific Coast this year will hardly fail to include San Diego in his itinerary. Millions





Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

#### OPENING THE SAN DIEGO EXPOSITION, ON JANUARY 1

(Our illustration shows Mr. G. Aubrey Davidson, president of the Panama-California Exposition at San Diego, making his address at the opening. Among the distinguished guests will be recognized, on the extreme left, Mr. Lyman J. Gage, former Secretary of the Treasury, and next to him Mr. William G. McAdoo, present Secretary of the Treasury, representing President Wilson. Wearing his uniform is Rear Admiral Thomas B. Howard, commanding the Pacific Fleet; Lieutenant Governor de Baca of New Mexico is shielding his eyes with his hat; and beyond him is the well-known face of Governor Hiram Johnson of California)

have been spent to make this local exposition particularly representative of all that relates to Western colonization, agriculture, and development. We shall in due time give further attention to this undertaking in a special article.

*President  
Wheeler's  
Interpretation*

Meanwhile our readers will in the present number find a well-illustrated account of the great creation at San Francisco, in honor of the completion of the Panama Canal. President Wheeler, of the University of Cali-



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A GLIMPSE THROUGH ONE OF THE ARCHES  
OF THE SAN DIEGO FAIR

fornia, writes for us an eloquent interpretation of the meaning of the Panama Canal to this country and to the world. He boasts not at all of California's brilliant celebration and hospitable appeal to America. But the whole of California will undoubtedly supplement San Francisco, San Diego, and Los Angeles in devoting the present year especially to the entertainment of visitors and the display of civic, industrial, and agricultural progress in that great State whose acquisition,—after the Mexican War and the



A VISTA SHOWING THE SPANISH ARCHITECTURE OF THE EXPOSITION AT SAN DIEGO

discovery of gold,—has contributed so much to the rounding out of the domain of our republic, and to our national fame and pride.

excellent time for inquiries of that kind on the part of Eastern visitors to the mountain and coast States of the West. For example,

*Mr. Phelan's  
Word of  
Welcome*

San Francisco's invitation is the more worthy of acceptance because of that city's magnificent recovery after the appalling calamity of the great fire of 1906. We are glad to present an expression of that cordial attitude toward the country, from a distinguished citizen of San Francisco who is best entitled of all Californians to give voice to the spirit of hospitality that characterizes our cosmopolitan city of the Western coast. Mr. Phelan, whether in public office or out of it, has long stood for public spirit, progress, civic dignity, and municipal embellishment in his native city. As mayor in successive terms, and as head of various municipal art and city-planning commissions, he has been a leader in the creation of a metropolis. In the reconstruction of San Francisco after the fire, he also played a foremost part. President Wilson sent him to Europe as United States Commissioner to support America's invitation to participate in the Panama-Pacific Exposition. Last November he was elected to the Senate, in a popular contest that gave him a plurality over strong Progressive and Republican candidates.

*Western  
Institutions*

The social and political institutions of our Western cities and States are always worth examination and study, and this year will be an



AN ARCHITECTURAL DETAIL OF ONE OF THE SAN DIEGO BUILDINGS





UNITED STATES SENATOR-ELECT JAMES D. PHELAN,  
OF CALIFORNIA

turn to page 213 of this number of the REVIEW, and examine a map the like of which has not been presented before. It accompanies an article by Mr. E. S. Potter, on the "direct government" movement, including such devices as the nominating primary, the initiative and referendum in lawmaking, and the recall of executive and judicial officers. It will be observed that of the mountain and coast States, all but Wyoming have adopted these new mechanisms. The educational systems and the municipal and local-government methods of the far-Western States are also worthy of first-hand observation. Our map in the December number of the REVIEW (page 662) showed that all of the mountain and coast States have now adopted woman suffrage, Nevada and Montana joining the list in November. California became a suffrage State in 1911, Oregon in 1912, and the State of Washington in 1910. Oregon and Washington also, in 1914, adopted prohibition amendments to their State constitutions; and the visitor will find the new system now in effect. California voted on that question in the November election, but prohibition was defeated. Our map in the December number (page 663) shows the progress of Statewide prohibition.

It should be remembered that the greater part of California is without saloons, under local-option laws.

*"Grand-Touring" America as Citizens* More and more the young Americans,—and older ones, too,—east of the Alleghanies will see

the necessity of making the "grand tour" of the United States for education and pleasure, somewhat as in earlier days it was thought necessary to make the grand tour of Europe for the broadening of experience and understanding. How to maintain wise and successful government in the United States from this time forth will be a problem growing more rather than less complex. It is a great privilege, but also a deep responsibility, to be a citizen of this republic. There are, of course, millions so placed that they cannot, at will and at pleasure, leave their bread-and-butter tasks to wander up and down the length and breadth of the land and know it for themselves in its various aspects. But there are large numbers who can by forethought and planning do much to familiarize themselves with the people and the localities of East and West, North and South. Those who can do this, yet think it not worth their while, lack the conceptions of America and its life that would give them the right sort of interest and enthusiasm. Further than that, they fail in a part of the duty of national citizenship, which requires familiar knowledge for the sake of right sympathy and understanding. It is true that there are, also, many people in the West who do not appreciate the progress and worth of that part of our common country lying east of the Alleghanies. But it must be said in justice that the number of Easterners who wholly fail to understand and properly value the civilization and the varied life and resources of the West is far greater.

*The Journey By  
Land or  
By Water*

There are those who will go to California by the fastest trans-continental trains and realize the luxury, comfort, and speed of what are the most highly developed systems of long-distance railway travel to be found anywhere in the world. There are others,—and let us hope the number will be many,—who will go by way of the Panama Canal and see the stupendous engineering achievement that affords occasion for this year's celebrations. Some of these will do as much as possible of the traveling by water; and they will realize for themselves something of those interesting changes in transportation that Miss Laut

sets forth so suggestively in her article on the traffic effects of the Canal, which appears in this number of the REVIEW. Others will prefer to journey by land, going by rail to Florida, perchance breaking journey at Washington, Richmond, Charleston, Savannah, or some of the other desirable and interesting places along the eastern seaboard. They may go by rail in Florida, on the new route, as far as Key West, make a quick passage across the ferry to Havana, and see something of Cuba as it makes progress under the friendly auspices and support of the United States. The transportation companies will give them some further glimpses of the West Indies before taking them through the Panama Canal and up the west coast of Central America and Mexico to southern California.

*Seeing the  
Mexican  
Border*

Still others, confining their tour to the United States, will follow the coast routes to New Orleans, make some stops in our great imperial State of Texas, and possibly get a glimpse of the Mexican side of the Rio Grande somewhere between Matamoras and El Paso. It must not be thought that the Mexicans are habitually shooting across the border, or that it would not be feasible for a traveler to put his foot on Mexican soil at various places in Chihuahua, Sonora, Lower California, or the more easterly of the tier of northern Mexican States. Furthermore, it would be well worth while for as many travelers as possible to acquaint themselves, in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and southern California, with local facts and local feelings having to do with

our relations with the people of the great country that adjoins ours along a frontier of much more than a thousand miles. The prevailing point of view in Texas and the South-



MR. CHARLES C. MOORE, PRESIDENT OF THE  
PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

west regarding Mexican affairs may not, indeed, be wholly sound. But, on the other hand, it cannot be disregarded.

*Going Across  
the "Middle  
West"*

There are many other travelers who,—wishing to go to California from the East in the period of summer vacations,—will prefer to follow the more direct routes, making stops to visit such cities as Chicago or St. Louis; St. Paul and Minneapolis or Kansas City; Omaha and Lincoln; Denver and Salt Lake. No one who is unfamiliar with the so-called "Middle West" can realize the pleasure and exhilaration to be found in spending a few days of May, June, or July in getting acquainted with the actual life and institutions of a great agricultural State like Iowa, for example. The summer climate is exquisite, the landscape is as fair and charming as the best of England and France, and the fields of clover, corn, wheat, or alfalfa, are beautiful in their fertility and their evidence of thrifty and careful cultivation. Town and country life is growingly comfortable and refined, farmers own automobiles by the thousand, schools and colleges flourish.



A GLIMPSE OF SAN FRANCISCO'S EXPOSITION, SHOWING A WATER FETE ON COLUMBUS DAY, LAST YEAR, AND INDICATING THE PROMPTITUDE WITH WHICH THE BUILDING WORK AND EMBELLISHMENT OF THE EXPOSITION WERE COMPLETED



*Seeing Wis-  
consin or  
Nebraska*

To see something of the life and progress of the State of Wisconsin, with its capital city of Madison as a central point of observation, is worth a journey from a long distance. The model farm of the agricultural college adjoins the grounds of the University, while the great historical library lies between the University and the State Capitol. In adjacent counties one finds the largest development of dairy farming, and the most extensive breeding of fine dairy cattle, that any similar area in the world can boast. A visit to Nebraska, involving the tarrying of a day or two at Lincoln, can also be made a most stimulating and instructive experience. At Lincoln one finds all the central activities of a vast agricultural commonwealth,—a State University, an agricultural college, a beautifully boulevarded city of almost a hundred thousand people, magnificent public schools of the most modern types and methods, and a local life at once simple, charming, and refined, that is as typical of America at its best as anything between the two oceans.

*And What of  
Kansas in  
Spring time?*

Or, think of the advantages to be gained, in a better knowledge of American life, by the traveler who will break journey for a few days in that State of moral courage and high conviction that is bounded by Missouri, Nebraska, Oklahoma, and Colorado. To see Kansas, with its fields of wheat and corn, and to mingle with its people while reading the newspapers of Governor Capper, Henry Allen, Victor Murdock, William Allen White, and twenty other notable leaders of public opinion,—this, indeed, is to be acquiring a really liberal American education. And so one could speak,—in glowing terms yet with the emphasis of understatement,—regarding the marvelous agricultural and human developments of Oklahoma, or the scenic splendors and varied attractions of Colorado. Furthermore, in these States they are working out problems of capital and labor, of government and education, that cannot be too carefully noted and that can be understood best by those who study them on the ground.

*The Northern  
Routes in  
Return*

Those whose return trip is made in the summer time will naturally wish to go northward. They will discover for themselves such rich and splendid cities as Portland, Ore., and Seattle, Wash.,—not to mention others,—with the great industries of agriculture, lum-

ber, mining, and fishing that belong to the lands and waters of the Puget Sound region. There will be opportunity to visit the forests of redwood, fir, and pine; the wonders of the Yosemite, in California, and some of the more northerly national parks and forest reserves. They may inspect the Government's reclamation projects, and see some of the new settlements created by Uncle Sam on irrigated public lands. They may go on up into British Columbia; or if time permits may journey to Alaska and see what Secretary Lane is planning to do with that great northern domain whose development so commands his enthusiasm and his constructive genius. They may visit the glaciers and perpetual snows of the Canadian Rockies, and, by way of complete contrast, take a run northward in Alberta to the fertile wheat lands of the Edmonton district and see for themselves the energy with which the Canadians are proposing this year to raise hundreds of millions of bushels of wheat for Britain and the Allies.

*Via Minnesota  
and the  
Lakes*

They may proceed eastward by numerous routes, but those who can will do well to drop down into Montana, perchance to visit Helena and the copper mines of Butte. This will be on the way to the Yellowstone Park,—which lies where Montana, Idaho, and Wyoming come together, and the interest and beauty of which nobody has ever over praised. Eastward routes cross the Dakotas, by a number of important railroad lines that carry wheat to the great mills of Minneapolis and Duluth. The environment of the twin cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul in summer time ought not to be neglected. From Duluth one may come eastward by palatial steamers, traversing the Great Lakes and stopping at a number of thriving ports whose water traffic equals in tonnage some of the very largest of the world's ocean harbors.

*Why One Should  
See This  
Country "First"*

These very casual suggestions for the traveler who would see something of his own country this year, are meant only to quicken the mind and to arouse some little sense of the magnitude and variety of our country's resources. We agree with Mr. Phelan that there is much to be said for the cry "See America First!" Our visitors to Europe would gain much more of value in their ability to perceive contrasts and make comparisons if they had a wide knowledge of their own country, and had acquired a sense of intimacy with

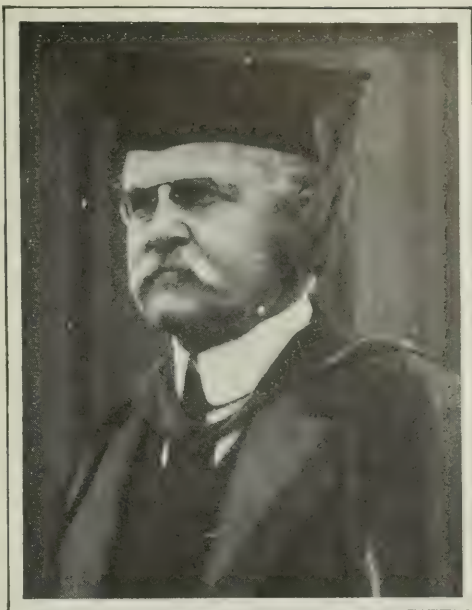
the general conditions under which a hundred million Americans are living, North and South, East and West.

*The Pacific  
Lands at  
the Fair*

Our readers will find some very notable bits of frank and wise expression in President Wheeler's article on the meaning of the Panama Canal to the country. Thus Dr. Wheeler makes it plain that we must live in ever-increasing relationship of trade and intercourse with the countries that face us across the Pacific. After all is said and done, the one country in all the world that has felt the most genuine and unselfish friendship for the United States is Japan. Of outside nations represented at the San Francisco fair, Japan and China have made the largest appropriations, excepting the Argentine Republic and Canada. Visitors to the Fair this year will have an exceptionally good opportunity to acquaint themselves with various phases of the past, present, and prospective relationships between the United States and the governments and people of Japan, China, and other eastern countries. Canada will be brilliantly and strongly represented, and South America will make the largest and most impressive showing of characteristic resources and up-to-date achievements that has ever been seen hitherto. There will, indeed, be much of variety and interest from a number of European countries. But the Fair will above all illustrate the progress of North and South America, and the things that pertain to the countries of eastern Asia, and to Australia, New Zealand, and the islands of the Pacific.

*As to Going  
by  
Automobile*

One great exhibit spread out upon the map of California will be the hundreds of miles of oil highways by means of which travelers in automobiles may see so much that otherwise would not be readily accessible. Furthermore, the average citizen of the East has little idea of the progress of good road-making in many other of the States of the middle and far West. Those who have the time and inclination could readily and safely undertake to make the journey across the continent by automobile, provided they proceed moderately, and with due intelligence and instruction as they pass from one State to another. Perhaps not so many motor parties will feel venturesome enough to try the long tour this year. But in the near future it will be a very common thing for automobilists to proceed from coast to coast, observing agriculture, seeing towns and



DR. BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER, PRESIDENT OF  
THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

(In his article on the meaning of the Canal, in the present number of the REVIEW, Dr. Wheeler says of the Japanese: "We and our sons and our sons' sons will have to know them and deal with them. We must get their point of view and understand their case")

phases of life, pausing at places of historic interest and points of scenic fame, and camping at many a pleasant spot by flowing stream or in sheltering woods. Hundreds of thousands of westward pioneers have in times past crossed the country in wagon trains, or so-called "prairie schooners." With the improved roads of to-day, to cross by automobile would simply mean a month of delightful experience, quite as safe as motoring in Europe, while free from many of the vexations and arbitrary impositions to which the American tourist is subjected on the European continent.

*The President's  
Plans for  
March*

It has for a long time been President Wilson's plan to proceed by water, early in March (after the end of the session of Congress on March 4), through the Panama Canal and along the Pacific Coast to San Francisco. This was to mark the formal opening of the Canal to the world; and ships from foreign fleets were to join our navy in making the passage. European conditions have, of course, greatly affected the original program. Most of the members of the cabinet were to be at sea on this expedition, which would have meant about three weeks on board ship. President Wilson may now have to change his plans, for



two principal reasons: (1) Because so many matters of a delicate and pressing kind that relate to our position as a neutral in the great war must come before the President; and (2) because it began to seem probable, after the middle of January, that the present Congress would retire on the 4th of March leaving unfinished business that would necessitate the calling of a special session of the new Congress. It was becoming doubtful whether the 4th of March would not find several of the great supply bills still pending, by reason of the preoccupation of the Senate.

The most highly controversial of the pending issues has been the so-called Ship Purchase bill. It will be remembered that this measure was carried over from the last session of Congress, and made the most urgent feature of the President's program for the present short session. In its original form the bill was intended to give effect to a project which was credited to Secretary McAdoo for at once establishing the United States in the ocean freighting business. Our vast foreign trade had been carried almost wholly in British, German, Norwegian, Italian, and other foreign vessels. The war had deranged this carrying trade, the German cruisers having at first captured and sunk many English ships, and frightened many others off the seas, while German merchant shipping, on the other hand, had from the start been practically put out of commission. A great many

of the large German passenger and freight ships had been interned in American ports. The Administration plan seems to have been to secure the appropriation of some \$30,000,000, with which to buy some of these German ships. It was proposed to put them into the carrying trade, operating them as a Government undertaking.

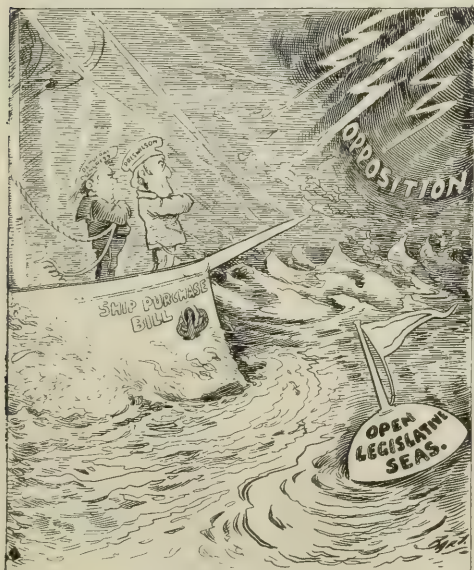
*Opposed,  
but  
Modified*

So far as we were able to discover, this earlier plan met with almost no approval in any business quarter.

The plan underwent much modification before it passed the House of Representatives; and the idea of leasing the ships to private individuals or companies for operation was substituted for direct Government management. The bill also provides for the participation of private capital, the Government, however, to hold the controlling interest. It is one of the recognized principles of international law that merchant ships must not pass from the flag of a belligerent to the flag of a neutral, for the mere purpose of avoiding risk or for the evasion of such inconveniences as are created by a state of maritime warfare.

*Could We Use  
German  
Ships?*

It is not supposable that the Hamburg-American and North German Lloyd lines would sell their splendid ships,—whether to the United States Government or to private American purchasers,—except to find escape from a predicament into which they have been thrown by the war. To make such a sale would release capital, which could be used for the more immediate promotion of Germany's maritime interests. The established principles of international law as relating to the rights of neutrals, in their maritime commerce, are far from being just or suitable. It is not fitting that angry belligerents should take possession of the world's common highways and subject peaceable neutrals to great loss and inconvenience. But we cannot change the principles of maritime international law merely to suit our own interests, while the war is raging. If we had intended to assert the right to buy the shipping of a disabled belligerent, who had suffered bad luck in a still pending war, we ought to have made due declaration of that purpose well in advance of the breaking-out of the conflict. England's immense naval superiority has always made her unfavorable to impartial and proper rules regarding the rights of neutrals, and the immunities of private property at sea. But we obtained all the benefit we could from



LOOK OUT FOR A WRECK!  
From the Journal (Minneapolis)

these arbitrary doctrines during our Civil War; and we must abide by them now, hoping that a better code of rules may be agreed upon when world peace comes.

*Danger of  
Buying  
Trouble*

It seems assured that the British and other allied governments would sharply oppose the purchase of German merchant vessels by an American shipping corporation dominated by our Government. But if we were to use the proposed fund for the purchase of ships other than those of Germany, where could we obtain them? It is true that freights to Europe are abnormally high, and that there might be better opportunity for American trade in every direction if we had an American merchant marine. But the conditions that have made freight bills high must have operated in any case. Furthermore, the high freights are not, as many people suppose, operating to our especial disadvantage. When we sell wheat for \$1.40 a bushel, it must not be thought by the careless reader that our farmers have anything to do with paying the freight to Europe. The unfortunate Europeans deposit money and establish credits here; buy and pay for the foodstuffs in Chicago or wherever they choose to purchase; and they pay their own freight bills, however large, to get the cargoes across the sea. If the United States Government should operate ships at a great loss, it might, indeed, enable the farmer to get \$2.00, instead of \$1.40, for his wheat. This would mean that the Government would be guilty of the great wrong of compelling the workers in our towns and cities to pay ten cents for a five-cent loaf, in order that farmers might have double the normal price for their crops.

*Secretary  
McAdoo's  
Argument*

Secretary McAdoo made an address at Chicago on January 9, before the Commercial Club, with a view to explaining the ship-purchase measure and proving its urgent need. He stated that the bill now provides for a private corporation with \$10,000,000 capital, of which the Government would own 51 per cent., while private investors could take the remainder. He did not say where this corporation would be able to buy ships, nor whether it was intended to use them in the European trade, the South American trade, or the Pacific trade. Since the project was first broached,—with the avowed object of buying the great German ships and putting them to use,—it has been announced that the German owners would not sell. Mr. Mc-

Adoo made it clear that if there should be some radical turn of fortune's wheel in favor of the Germans, so that British merchant ships should be driven off the seas, our export and import business would be very seriously hampered. He has not, however, explained how the pending Ship Purchase bill could help us much, in the face of so great an emergency as the driving of English vessels to cover. Ten millions would not buy many ships, and the plan would take years.

*Open to  
Conviction*

Nobody could be more sincerely desirous than we are of presenting the arguments for the Ship Purchase bill fairly. We have been, and are, wholly open to conviction. We would like to believe that the bill is a good one, and that it would remedy what is undoubtedly a real need. But we have searched in vain for some clear explanation of the thing proposed; and although even President Wilson, in his Indianapolis speech, pronounced American public opinion intensely in favor of the bill, we should not otherwise have discovered that such a sentiment existed,—though sympathetically searching for it. That the President, Mr. McAdoo, and others are pushing this bill in the most patriotic spirit, and with the belief that their direct and open method,—rather than the indirect plan of subsidies,—will best help to reestablish the long-lost American merchant marine, there can be no doubt whatsoever.

*Time  
Needed for  
Study*

The subject is a difficult one, and the country is not yet educated to an understanding of it. The bill was brought forward as a sudden idea for relief in a great emergency; and its proposal was, as we have said, in perfect good faith. If it should not be accepted, the Administration ought not to be regarded as having been defeated upon an essential matter. Nor does it seem just to hold that leading Republican Senators, like Mr. Burton, Mr. Root, Mr. Lodge, and others, have opposed this bill from partisan considerations. Their speeches show that they have not been convinced of the wisdom or practicability of the measure. The disposition of the Democrats of the Senate to make it a party caucus measure and force it to immediate passage came as a surprise to the country. It was met by an announced determination, on the part of leading Republican Senators, not to permit its passage without the most exhaustive and thorough debate, regardless of appropriation bills and the shortness of the session.





## AS BETWEEN FRIENDS

BRITISH LION: "Please don't look at me like that, Sam. You're not the eagle I'm up against."  
From *Punch* (London)

Making  
a Test  
Case

The attitude of the English Government, late last month, towards the sailing of the *Dacia*, would seem to have been intended as a notice to the United States that, even if the Ship Purchase bill becomes a law, we shall not be permitted to buy and operate any of the German ships. The *Dacia* is a Hamburg-American freight steamer, which was bought from German owners by an American who proposed to use her in the shipment of cotton from Galveston to Rotterdam. The Government of the United States asked the British Government to permit the *Dacia* to make a voyage, pending the discussion of underlying principles, without molesting or seizing her. The British Government declined to make any such promises. It has looked as if the *Dacia* case had been deliberately created by persons interested in testing the practical policies and intentions of the British Government.

Our Note  
and Britain's  
Response

Just before the beginning of the new year, our Government sent an elaborate note to the Government of Great Britain, protesting against the British policy of seizing vessels containing American cargoes (sailing under neutral flags such as the Norwegian or Italian) and taking them into British ports in order to ransack them at leisure on suspicion of finding contraband articles intended for German

use. The publication of this note made a great sensation in England, although it made none whatever in the United States. The practical point seems to be that England has tried to keep American copper from getting into Germany through Holland or into Austria by way of Italy. It is alleged that copper has sometimes been found inside of bales of cotton. The American protest seems to have been directed not so much against England's vigilant exercise of the so-called "right of search" as against her policy of acting upon suspicion rather than a fair degree of preliminary evidence,—and also against the plan of indefinite detention in ports as against the former custom of searching at sea.

A Friendly  
Discussion

Of course, the American note was courteous in its phrases, and it was probably correct in its technical attitude. England made a preliminary reply, which was argumentative and not very conclusive. Figures were given to show that American trade with several neutral countries had been much larger during recent months than in normal years. The inference was that this swollen trade was due to the shipment of goods destined to pass from neutral to belligerent countries. But this British answer wholly failed to note the fact that these neutral countries, in normal times, receive enormous imports from their larger neighbors which are now at war. Such im-



## THE FRIENDLY NEIGHBOR'S PROTEST

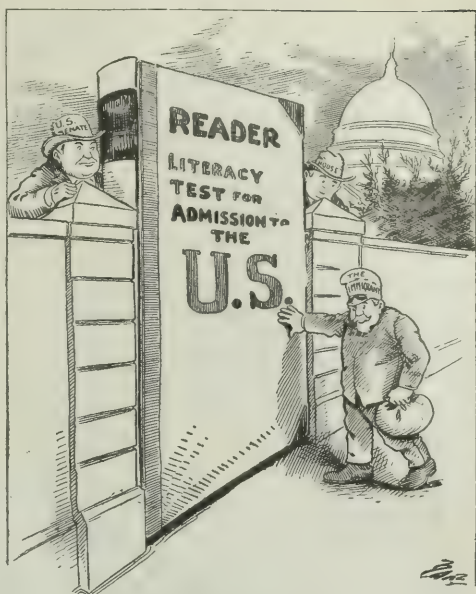
JOHN BULL: "What's that, old chap? My dog annoying you? Are you quite sure you were not first annoying him?"

From the *Star* (Montreal)

ports have been very sharply curtailed; and a portion of this trade is diverted to the United States. So far as the figures go, this shifting alone would more than account for our increased exports to the neutral countries named in the note of the Foreign Office.

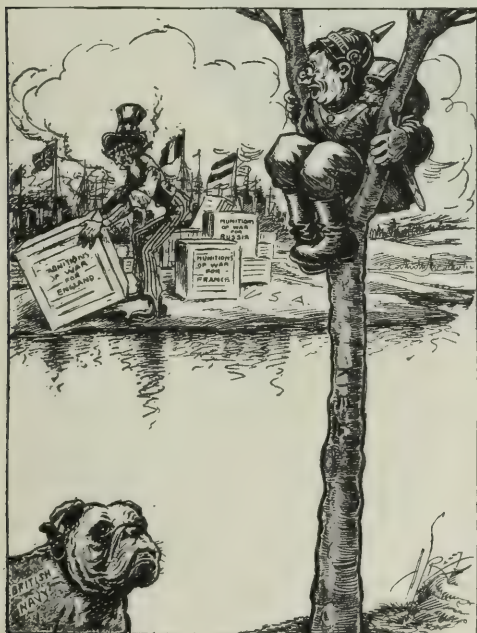
*Our Traffic  
in War  
Materials*

Certainly the Allies are using effective means to cut off Germany's foreign trade, whether in contraband or in other materials. Meanwhile, Germany is powerless to prevent the stupendous traffic that is going on between the United States and Great Britain in all sorts of war munitions. To put it simply and plainly, international law,—so far as it affects neutrals and ocean business,—has all been made in the interest of the belligerent that has the big navy and can command the sea. We must not send a pound of American copper to Germany; but we are sending hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of powder, guns, projectiles, and other articles that are directly or conditionally contraband, to the support of Great Britain and the Allies; and many American concerns are reaping enormous fortunes in doing this. Upon the whole, it seems to us that the British Government is not in the smallest degree more exacting in its treatment of our



THE NEW GATE  
From the Journal (Minneapolis)

trade at sea than the German Government (or our own Government, for that matter) would have been under similarly tempting circumstances. While this war lasts we must submit faithfully to the existing rules of international law, no matter which belligerent gains or loses thereby. When the war is ended we must strive to obtain better rules on behalf of the interest of all mankind.



THE WAIL FROM GERMANY

GERMANY TO UNCLE SAM: "Ili, you vos selling goods to der Allies!"

UNCLE SAM TO GERMANY: "Certainly; and I'll sell them to you, also. Come and get them."

From the Star. (Montreal)

Again, the Literacy Test

The immigration question again came to the issue last month, and, as two years ago, the result seemed to depend upon the consistency of members of Congress. On January 2, by a vote of 50 to 7, the Senate passed a bill which had gone through the House almost a year ago, regulating and restricting immigration and applying the literacy test as the chief new principle of exclusion. One of President Taft's last acts before making way for Mr. Wilson in the White House was to veto the Burnett-Dillingham bill, which was in most essentials the same measure that was sent to President Wilson for his approval last month. The steamship companies, and certain other interests and elements, are said to have worked hard to prevent the passage by Congress of the Burnett bill over Mr. Taft's veto. The necessary two-thirds vote was easily found in the Senate; but a great number of members of the House, who had voted for the measure on its passage, changed their attitude and sustained the veto. It was re-



garded as likely that President Wilson, who was taking time for consideration, would also veto the measure on the ground that he did not like the literacy test. The Senate would, of course, vote to pass the bill over the veto; but the House, in our opinion, would sustain the President by the necessary vote of just more than one-third of its members.

*Material for  
"Citizenry"*

The war has, of course, greatly reduced immigration for the time being. The application of new tests could be made now with less practical inconvenience than at a later time. That of ability to read is far from being a logically perfect one; but it was recommended by the Immigration Commission, several years ago, after a vast and impartial study of the whole problem. It is not likely that this test would operate to shut out very many desirable immigrants. It would, however, affect appreciably that great tide of labor that moves back and forth in the steerage, retaining its citizenship in the countries of eastern and southern Europe. The literacy test could be so modified and applied in a reasonable spirit as not to exclude many families whose addition to our citizenship is to be encouraged.

*Wilson as a  
Fierce  
Democrat*

The most hopeful indication the country has had that the authorities at Washington feel some lessening of the serious strain imposed by world affairs, was to be found in the President's appearance at Indianapolis on "Jackson Day," January 8, and his making of a speech so aggressively partisan as doubtless to have

caused him much inward merriment. President Wilson, who has spent his life as a political philosopher and an analytical student of history, is as far removed from the state of mind of the ordinary traditional political partisan as is almost every other really enlightened and patriotic American to-day. Our two chief parties are merely rival groups of politicians and their hangers-on, who play the game either for the honors, or the spoils, or the fun there is in it. Mr. Wilson has always believed in the system of party government, one side being at the bat and the other out in the field. It happens that he is now playing as captain of the



Photograph by American Press Association

PRESIDENT WILSON AT INDIANAPOLIS ON "JACKSON DAY," JANUARY 8

Democratic team. He is justly proud of the surprisingly good record this once-demoralized team has been making, under his leadership. He is aware that the other team was wrecked by selfish and amazingly stupid management. Jackson Day is a Democratic party affair, and the President had a right to crack up the performance of his

own team, and to exhort his followers to stand together, take their orders, and hit the line hard. The Republicans should have shown a little more humor and common sense in their resentful comments upon Mr. Wilson's gibes and persiflage at Indianapolis. His partisanship was for the occasion; and his recognition of the fact that the independent voter rules the country was as handsome and sincere as it was truthful.

*Letting the  
Mexicans  
Fight It Out*

Mr. Wilson, in referring to his Mexican policy, made the following remark: "The time may come when the American people will be called

on to judge whether I know what I am talking about or not." The newspapers seem determined to have it that President Wilson was announcing himself for a second term. Since it had been widely proclaimed by all Democratic leaders that Mr. Wilson would be renominated without opposition, there was no particular reason for seeking a hidden meaning in the President's very innocent allusion to the consequences of his Mexican policy and the verdicts of history. His discussion of the Mexican situation was not extended. He took the ground that Mexico had a right to work out its own political future, with as much fighting as its factions saw fit to indulge in, and without much regard for the harm done to foreign interests. His sympathies are for the great mass of plain people in Mexico, who, through revolutionary struggle, may come into a heritage that hitherto has been denied them.

What Is  
Really  
Going On?

There is much to be said for this principle. On the other hand, it is hard to follow the confused and chaotic movement of military factions in Mexico, and discover anything that looks much like a war for human progress and welfare. Yet out of it all one must believe that there will come land reform, better institutions for justice, modern kinds of taxation, general education, and national government resting upon broader and deeper foundations. One thing is quite certain, and that is that no important faction or element in Mexico has desired our interference, and that with our present army we could not have gone into Mexico to restore order and



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GENERAL ROQUE GONZALES GARZA, NEW PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

reconstruct the country. We should have been obliged to create a large volunteer army, and would, in all likelihood, have embarked upon a war of frightful bloodshed and painful vicissitudes.

A Proposed  
Partition



WILSON'S TALK MADE A HIT "DOWN HOME"!

From the Sun (Baltimore)

It would be hardly worth while to endeavor in a few sentences to describe the kaleidoscopic changes in the Mexican situation of last month. Gen. Eulalio Gutierrez, who had been appointed Provisional President on November 2 by the convention of Constitutionalist leaders, was deposed by that same convention on January 17, at the instance of General Villa. In his place was installed Gen. Roque Gonzales Garza, who had formerly been secretary to President Madero. At the moment of his selection, he was acting as chairman of the convention which gave him his new honors. Nobody supposes that he will hold the place for more than a few days or weeks. It was reported that the followers of Villa were preparing to abandon the city of Mexico, and that the Carranza faction would perhaps be allowed to regain possession of the capital. Villa was said to be planning for a northern republic, which would include the states lying along the



American border. It does not seem likely that peace and prosperity for Mexico are to come by the process of partitioning the country, although even that is a possible solution. As stated in this REVIEW last month, Villa's choice for the civil headship is General Felipe Angeles, whose relative fitness seems to be acknowledged. This northern region of Mexico embraces almost half of the territory of the country, but not much more than an eighth of the population. It is the portion most interesting to the United States, and its future naturally concerns us.

*Mineral Lands  
and  
Water Power*

It was admitted at Washington last month that the Western conservation bills, which had already passed the House, had little chance of passage in the Senate during the current session. It will be remembered that action on these measures was urgently demanded at the last session of Congress. The continued delay in the enactment of these laws is a serious disappointment to many investors and others who are interested in the development of the West. So far as our Government can be said to have a definite conservation policy, the principles on which that policy are based are embodied in these bills, one of which provides for the development of oil and mineral lands and the other for the granting of water-power privileges for purposes of development. The object of both bills is to secure the use, under reasonable restraint, of natural resources that are now practically locked up and kept useless because there is no way by which capital can be given assurance as to tenure of privileges which under existing laws are revocable and intended to be merely temporary.

*A Program  
for  
Development*

Secretary Lane, of the Department of the Interior, has a constructive program which, if adopted by Congress, will lead to the unlocking of many of these resources that the nation as a whole desires to have developed. So far as the so-called leasing bill for mineral lands is concerned, there has not been, nor is there likely to be, any serious opposition save from the few who think that all public lands now owned by the Federal Government should be ceded to the States. It is a reasonable bill in that it gives the lessee, or the citizen who wishes to conduct mining operations, full notice of what he may expect from the Government, and, at the same time, secures the rights of the public and insures a fair return to the Government itself.

*Fair to All  
Parties*

As to the water-power bill, opposition was, of course, to be expected from those who, for their own reasons, do not wish to have the Government receive any return whatever for its water rights, but the bill can in no wise be regarded as harsh in the terms that it imposes on the man who seeks to develop power on the public lands. He is given full opportunity to put his plant on a paying basis before the Government asks of him more than a nominal rent for the privileges that it grants. On the side of the people there is one vitally important provision in the power bill, *viz.*, that the rights granted to the lessee shall revert at the end of fifty years to the Government if the Government wishes to take the plant over. Those who believe that the Government should part with this right without any consideration whatever need to be reminded that both President Roosevelt and President Taft vetoed bills passed by Congress on the ground that they did not provide for proper payment for value received by the power companies, and the House of Representatives went on record as favoring such payment. Both the mineral lands bill and the power bill are right and consistent in principle and should be passed.

*Reforms  
by  
Vote*

The resolution for a prohibition amendment to the Federal Constitution, to which we alluded in these pages last month, received in the House of Representatives the surprising vote of 197 to 189, failing by 91 votes of the necessary two-thirds. On page 215 of this REVIEW Dr. Iglehart makes an interesting statement of the rapid advance now being made by the anti-saloon movement in the States. On January 12 the resolution proposing a woman-suffrage amendment to the Constitution was defeated in the House by a vote of 204 to 174. Here again the influence of the administration was cast in favor of State as against federal action. In view of the fact that both the liquor and the suffrage question are continually presented to the voters of many of our States, the article in this number (page 209) by Professor Richard T. Ely on the subject of progressivism will be found of especial interest. Professor Ely, although writing from the progressive point of view, opposes the initiative, the referendum, and the recall. Mr. Potter, on the other hand, shows in an accompanying article what has been done to remedy defects in the working of initiative and referendum systems in several of the States.

*Vote-Buying  
at  
Terre Haute*

The disclosures of the past two months regarding the November election at Terre Haute, Indiana, remind us of the famous Adams County (Ohio) scandal of four years ago. As a result of a Federal Grand Jury investigation, Mayor Don M. Roberts, of Terre Haute, a candidate for the Democratic nomination for Governor, and more than one hundred others, including two judges, the chief of police, the county sheriff, and the city inspector of weights and measures, were arrested, and eighty of the accused pleaded guilty to the indictment, which charged them with conspiracy to corrupt the election. Eight entered pleas of "not guilty," and the remaining twenty-six, including the more prominent city and county officials, filed demurrers. Members of all political parties were involved. Although it is a new thing for the federal courts to take cognizance of elections, District Attorney Dailey, a Democrat appointed by President Wilson, has begun the prosecution of these cases in full confidence that since a United States Senator and a member of Congress were voted on in the election of last November, any manipulation of that election constituted fraud against the United States Government. Soon after the Indiana indictments were found, wholesale vote-buying and illegal voting were charged in the adjacent Illinois counties constituting ex-Speaker Cannon's district, and an investigation into these charges was ordered by the Government at Washington.

*Help for  
the  
Railroads*

The action of the Interstate Commerce Commission in granting the Eastern railroads a 5 per cent. increase in freight rates is but one factor, though far and away the most important, in the present movement toward a just and sympathetic consideration of the emergency confronting the roads and of the immediate needs raised by it. Later and more careful estimates of the net addition to the income of the Eastern railroads accomplished by the rate increases point to an amount not exceeding \$25,000,000 yearly, instead of the \$50,000,000 indicated by the first calculations. The moral effect of this, the first important change of rates upward that has occurred in the history of our government regulation of the railroads, has been increased since the decision was announced by a supplementary order from the Commerce Commission, directing that in making the higher tariffs, existing groups and relationships of rates shall not be disturbed, even

if this result in certain tariffs increasing more than 5 per cent. The new freight schedules in the Eastern territory went into effect on January 15, and even before that date cheering consequences of the decision were seen in orders of considerable size given by the roads for new equipment.

*The Nation  
Waking to the  
Railroad Crisis*

A noteworthy sign that people at large, as well as the Commerce Commission, are coming to a realization of the acute financial problems confronting the railroads, was given in the popular vote in Missouri refusing to approve new legislation for the "full crew" measures which have been found so costly and inefficient in New York, and other Eastern States. In Kansas, thirteen railways are presenting their case through paid advertising in 600 newspapers, and this is only a part of a campaign which includes Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan. This work is done in a tone of full reliance upon the fairness of the people, once they understand the facts. In Oregon the State Wool Growers Association has just passed resolutions condemning the harmful anti-railroad legislation of their State, and pointing out forcibly how shippers and the State at large are injured by any such oppression. In New Jersey, the employees of the Pennsylvania Railroad have petitioned the legislature, protesting against "full crew" and "long-train" statutes. In Massachusetts, Governor Walsh has made a plea that the Boston and Maine system should be helped by compromise and concession; and in Connecticut, Governor Holcomb has refused to take a position with the more violent opponents of the management of the New Haven, and he, together with President Hadley of Yale, are doing what may be done to get the help of the people and the government in the rehabilitation of that once great property.

*State Legisla-  
ture vs. Federal  
Commission*

Railroad managers may still be compelled to devote too much of their energy to the struggle against ill-considered legislative enactments. Thus, the Pennsylvania Railroad Commission has recently ordered a reduction of rates on coal from the mines to Philadelphia, almost coincidentally with the decision of the Federal Commission raising rates in that territory, and with the Commission's remarkably open and unqualified admission that the roads are suffering from insufficient revenue. The Pennsylvania Commission found that the roads charged more to carry coal to



Philadelphia than they charged for the longer haul to New York. At first glance, this would seem to be an anomaly and an injustice to the Pennsylvania home consumers, but the slightest further examination of the problem before the railroads shows that the price of coal at New York is determined by extraordinary competition, and the whole vexing and elaborate question of the rates for the long and short haul is immediately reopened. But whatever be the merits of the case decided by the Pennsylvania Commission, it is obvious that the Commission's action simply operates to annul so much of the greatly needed relief that was being granted by the Federal Commission, and that the State action was taken without consideration of the large and acute situation which the Interstate Commerce Commission had been studying for more than three years.

*A Broad Plan for  
New Haven  
Financing*

The New Haven Railroad has turned to the same sort of program for permanent financing adopted by the Great Northern, New York Central, Erie, Baltimore and Ohio, and other important roads. This is a provision for a huge blanket mortgage, which in time substitutes a uniform class of bonds for the many existing heterogeneous issues. The case of the New Haven is somewhat different, to be sure, as a boast of the road has been that the main line has never had a mortgage debt. It is clear now, however, that this is the one plan for rehabilitating the road financially. Through its note issues and its recent various and rather desperate expedients for raising money, the road has at times paid as much as 7 per cent. for its funds. This is an impossible cost of capital. The new plan is to provide for \$300,000,000 of bonds to be a first lien on all the property of the company. \$75,000,000 is to be issued at once upon the approval of the plan by the States of Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, and the remainder is to be issued from time to time to pay off the road's indebtedness and provide funds for improvements and extensions. It is hoped that in normal times this security will enable the New Haven to raise capital at an interest charge of not more than 4 per cent.

*Soaring Prices  
for  
Wheat*

On January 16 the price of wheat went to \$1.45 per bushel, the highest price since the historic Leiter speculation in 1898, which resulted in a price of \$1.85. Only four times in forty years has wheat sold higher than

\$1.37. The movement of the prices quoted has been feverish in the extreme, one day seeing a drop of no less than 9 cents and the next day finding the loss more than made up. The reasons for this extraordinary condition in the wheat market can be stated briefly. We have been exporting wheat to Europe at the rate of a million bushels a day for five months, and have exported this season no less than 200,000,000 bushels. The normal exportable surplus of the United States is put at 150,000,000 bushels, but the great crop this year is thought to have furnished more than 300,000,000 bushels that we can spare to Europe.

*Great Luck  
for  
Wheat Farmers*

When the war broke out, holders of wheat were prevented from marketing it by the sudden withdrawal of shipping facilities and the refusal of the railroads at times to carry it to the seaboard, in a situation where there was no plan in sight for transporting it farther. Thus, many holders of wheat were compelled against their will to refrain from selling at the much lower prices of the earlier autumn, and as a result have been reaping a rich profit at the abnormally higher prices that came later with the flood of demand created by war conditions. As always happens in such a situation, prophecies are now rife of a price of \$1.75 or more for the cereal; and, impelled by the sudden and phenomenal rise of recent months, many holders are now refusing to sell. The undetermined factors which may at any time produce a sudden drop in the price of wheat are, first, the highly speculative matter of Russia's getting at a world market for her crop by forcing the Dardanelles, and second, the normal competition of Argentina's new crop which will be offered for export in the near future.

*The  
Trade Balance  
in Our Favor*

At the beginning of the great European War there was a trade balance against the United States and in favor of England generally estimated at \$250,000,000. England was extremely desirous, naturally, that this balance should be settled by the actual export of gold from America. Sir George Paish and other officials came to the United States to obtain a settlement satisfactory to England, and \$100,000,000 in gold was shipped to Ottawa, Canada, to be held there to establish a credit for England. This problem of the settlement of our debt to Europe, for the excess of goods we imported over the goods we had exported, seemed likely at one time to be

come a vexing one; but it has ceased to exist as a problem, through the extraordinary turn in the tide of foreign commerce since September. Owing to our large exports (1) of war material and supplies (2) of cotton, and (3) of wheat, together with the slackening of the import trade,—the balance of a quarter of a billion dollars against the United States has been in these few months completely wiped out and a balance on the other side, in our favor, is building up with great rapidity. Last month the rate of exchange had fallen from the entirely unprecedented high figures of August and September to several points below normal. By the middle of January, indeed, it was so low that our bankers could have forced importation of European gold if this had been desirable.

*The Progress  
of the  
War*

On subsequent pages will be found our condensed record of events in the history of the world-wide war. Mr. Simonds' article gives a broad interpretation and account not only of the chief events of January, but also of the situation in general at the end of a half-year's fighting. It is urgently to be hoped that peace may come this year, but there are no present signs of it. The prospects of an entrance into the war on the part of Rumania and Italy are discussed by Mr. Simonds, whose monthly articles are those of a regular editorial contributor and take the place of much that would otherwise appear in these opening comments. The failure of Turkey to accomplish anything important thus far, and her marked defeat by the Russians in the Caucasus region, are already producing symptoms of revolt at Constantinople and elsewhere, against an unpopular and ruinous war. There seems also to be much disquietude within the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and an intense desire for peace. The war was begun by Austria's attack upon Serbia; and the Austrian Foreign Minister, Count Berchtold, whose fateful diplomacy proved so disastrous, is now in retirement and succeeded by a Hungarian, Baron Stephen Burian.

*Our  
War  
Articles*

Professor Pupin's statements in this number regarding Serbia will be read with interest, as will Stanley Washburn's thrilling story of fighting in Poland. A correspondent in Egypt shows our readers clearly why the Turks cannot possibly hope to displace England at the Suez Canal and on the Nile. The Japanese Diet has been dissolved because of its



SCENES OF RECENT EARTHQUAKES IN ITALY

(The shaded portion east of Rome is the district visited by a violent earth shock on January 13. The dotted section in southern Italy and Sicily is the district which suffered so severely from the catastrophe of December 28, 1908)

unwillingness to vote large sums for military purposes. Yet it is quite possible that Japan may soon send considerable armies to the aid of Russia and England. The German resistance has continued to show marvelous resource and courage; but time counts for the Allies. All the best forces of civilization are calling for peace, charity, and a new order, under which each nation may live on terms of friendship with all others, seeking honor through service to humanity.

*Another  
Messina*

On January 13 the world was reminded of the Messina earthquake that occurred six years ago by a similar disaster laying waste a large district in central Italy surrounding Avezzano, east of Rome, and causing the loss of nearly 40,000 lives. In ordinary times such a horror would have absorbed the world's attention for many days, but the Great War has made humankind less sensitive in the presence of widespread calamity. Still the response to appeals for the aid of Italy's suffering people was prompt and sympathetic. King Victor Emmanuel himself directed the work of rescue and relief. The whole region was prostrated and the property loss was estimated at \$100,000,000.



# WINTER IN THE WAR ZONES



A RUSSIAN ARTILLERY CORPS OPERATING A MOUNTAIN GUN IN THE SNOW



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AN AUSTRIAN OUTPOST GUARD IN THE WINTRY CARPATHIANS



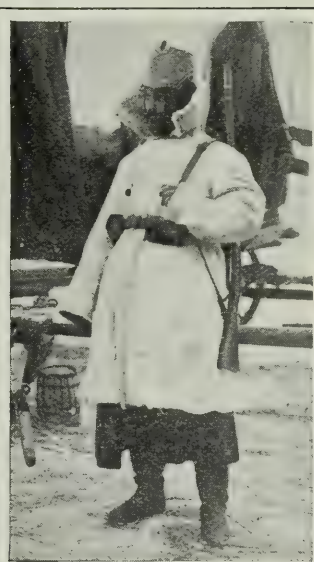
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FRENCH TROOPS, WITH HOODED WINTER COATS, FIGHTING IN SNOW-COVERED TRENCHES



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ENGLISH OFFICERS WITH THEIR NEW GOAT-SKIN  
WINTER COATS



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A GERMAN SOLDIER WITH HIS  
WHITE SHEEPSKIN COAT



BRITISH OFFICERS' MOTOR CARS DISABLED ON A SNOW-COVERED ROAD





Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

CHRISTMAS WITH THE GERMAN LANDSTURM SOLDIERS IN POLAND: DECORATING A CHRISTMAS TREE  
AT A LONELY RAILROAD OUTPOST



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

GERMAN SOLDIERS BREAKING THE ICE AROUND A PONTOON BRIDGE IN POLAND



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

GERMAN ARTILLERY OPERATING IN THE SNOW, NEAR GUMBÜNNEN, EAST PRUSSIA



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

GERMAN SOLDIERS RESTING IN A RIFLE-PIT NEAR DARKEHMEN, EAST PRUSSIA, AFTER A HARD FIGHT



# RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From December 22, 1914, to January 21, 1915)

## *The Last Ten Days of December*

December 22.—The Bulgarian Minister at Petrograd announces that Rumania has agreed to restore to Bulgaria the province of Dobrudja, acquired as a result of the second Balkan war.

The French Parliament meets at Paris, in the first session held since August 4.

Twenty-four French generals are retired by the commander-in-chief, General Joffre.

Statistics of wounded French soldiers (from September 15 to November 30) indicate a total of 489,733, the mortality rate being 2.48 per cent.

December 23.—German offensive movements in Poland cause the Russian strategists to raise the siege of Cracow temporarily and draw their lines closer together.

It is officially announced at Constantinople that a Turkish army has begun an advance upon the Suez Canal.

The Portuguese Government declares that a second attempt has been made by a German force to invade Angola, Portugal's West African possession.

The French Senate and Chamber of Deputies adopt without a dissenting vote the half-year credits amounting to \$1,700,000,000, of which \$1,100,000,000 is for war purposes.

It is authoritatively reported at Washington that the sinking of the British battleship *Audacious* (on October 27, off the north coast of Ireland) was caused by a submarine and not by a mine; it had been believed impossible for a submarine to operate so far from a naval base.

December 24.—A German official announcement indicates a victory at Mława, in northern Poland, where they had been defeated on December 16.

The Russian army besieging Cracow accomplishes a swift retirement of fifty miles, preventing the junction of two advancing Austrian armies and making possible the defeat of each.

December 25.—Seven British naval airmen, convoyed by warships, attack the German naval base at Cuxhaven, all but one returning safely after dropping bombs; the incident furnishes the first contest between an airship and a warship, the British maintaining that two German Zeppelins were easily put to flight by the guns of two British cruisers.

The neutral Italian Government lands sailors at Avlona, the Albanian seaport, to uphold the London Conference (1912) and to maintain order at a time when no legal authority is recognized.

Emperor Yoshihito dissolves the imperial Japanese diet after the House rejects the Government's army bill providing for an increased territorial force.

The Russians announce that up to December 20 they had captured 132,877 Germans and 224,633 Austrians.

December 27.—Venezuela proposes a conference of neutral nations, to meet at Washington and

consider a revision of the rules of international law relating to the rights of neutrals.

December 28.—The United States protests to Great Britain "in the most friendly spirit" against the seizure and detention of vessels laden with American goods destined to neutral ports in Europe.

Germany presents to the United States its proposal regarding the status of foreign consuls in Belgian territory occupied by German troops.

December 29.—The French offensive movement in Alsace reaches the outskirts of Steinbach and within artillery range of Muelhausen.

An official Russian report declares that 50,000 Austrians were captured during the first half of December.

December 30.—Austria admits a withdrawal, southward, along the entire eastern front (in Galicia, between Cracow and Przemyśl), before a reinforced Russian offensive.

## *The First Week of January*

January 1.—The British battleship *Formidable* is sunk before dawn in the English Channel (only 200 of the crew of 700 being rescued), by two torpedoes from a German submarine.

The Russian army in Galicia begins a second invasion of Hungary, through passes in the Carpathians.

Turkish troops occupy Ardahan, a fortified Russian town in Transcaucasia.

The German headquarters announces that there are in Germany 586,000 prisoners of war; 310,000 are Russians, 220,000 French, 37,000 Belgians, and 19,000 British.

January 3-4.—The Russian Army of the Caucasus wins two decisive victories over Turkish forces, at Ardahan and Sari Kamysh, an entire Turkish army corps of 30,000 men being destroyed.

January 4.—The French troops in Upper Alsace complete their occupation of Steinbach.

January 6.—Lord Kitchener, British Secretary of State for War, informs the House of Lords that in his opinion 2,000,000 men will be required by Great Britain to carry on the war.

It is announced at the Vatican that all the principal belligerents have accepted the Pope's proposal for an exchange of permanently disabled prisoners.

January 7.—The American Secretary of State informs the German Ambassador at Washington that while the United States will take under consideration charges of improper practices (the use of soft-nosed bullets), it cannot, in the interests of neutrality, investigate or comment on them.

President Poincaré, of France, signs the decree prohibiting the wholesale and retail sale and transportation of absinthe and similar liquors.

Trade figures published in London show a de-

crease, during 1914, of \$475,000,000 in exports from Great Britain, and \$355,000,000 in imports.

January 8.—It is reported at Milan that Austria-Hungary has protested to Italy against the occupation of Avlona, the Albanian seaport.

A New York estimate puts at \$14,000,000 the value of food, clothing, and medical supplies sent to Belgians by people of the United States.

### *The Second Week of January*

January 10.—Great Britain's preliminary reply to the American note of protest, regarding interference with neutral commerce, is made public; the reply sets forth Great Britain's position, offers to make redress when action exceeds right, and welcomes "any arrangement by which mistakes can be avoided and reparation secured promptly."

The most extensive aeroplane raid of the war is accomplished by German aviators, who fly over Dunkirk, on the French coast, in a dozen or more armored biplanes, and drop bombs upon the town.

January 12.—Turkey, it is learned, has agreed to Italy's demands for a settlement of the Hodeidah incident, including a flag salute and the participation of the Italian consul in the investigation.

January 13.—Count Berchtold resigns office as Austrian Foreign Minister, and is succeeded by Baron Stephen Burian, a Hungarian; Count Berchtold was conspicuous in the diplomatic situation which precipitated the war.

A German offensive movement northeast of Soissons, in France, results in the capture of six villages and the enforced withdrawal of the French line to the southern bank of the Aisne; this constitutes the most conspicuous advantage

gained by either side in many weeks of intermittent "frontal" attacks along the whole line in France and Belgium.

A Turkish army occupied Tabriz, the second largest city of Persia, apparently in an effort to reach Russia through the virtually unfortified Russo-Persian frontier.

Reports from Russia indicate that a new advance in force into East Prussia is being undertaken by a fresh Russian army.

January 16.—Russian advance guards in Bukovina capture Kirlibaba Pass over the Carpathians into Transylvania.

A Russian statesman declares that the Turkish armies in the Caucasus have again been defeated, at Karaorgan.

A Turkish official statement declares that the French submarine *Saphir* is sunk while attempting to enter the Dardanelles.

### *The Third Week of January*

January 17-18.—The village of La Boisselle, northeast of Amiens, in France, is captured by the Germans and recaptured by the French.

January 18.—Reports of French advances in the forests of Le Pretre indicate that they have reached a point within ten miles of the outer forts of the great German stronghold of Metz.

January 19.—A fleet of German airships makes a long-expected night attack upon England, dropping bombs on six towns along the Norfolk coast.

January 21.—A new German assault is begun at Soissons, where the fighting line comes nearest to Paris; indications point to a massing of large numbers of German and French forces.

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From December 21, 1914, to January 20, 1915)

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

December 21.—The House passes the Lever bill, authorizing federal licenses for warehouses for cotton, grain, and other non-perishable agricultural products,—thereby facilitating credit.

December 22.—In the House, the resolution of Mr. Hobson (Dem., Ala.), proposing nationwide prohibition through an amendment to the Constitution, receives a majority vote (197 to 189), but not the required two-thirds vote.

December 23.—Both branches adjourn for the holiday recess.

December 29.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess. . . . In the Senate, Mr. O'Gorman (Dem., N. Y.) criticizes the literacy test in the Immigration bill.

December 30.—In the Senate, the Administration's Ship Purchase bill is reported from committee.

December 31.—The Senate retains the literacy test in the Immigration bill by vote of 47 to 12; an amendment is attached to the bill, excluding negro immigrants from entrance into the United States. . . . The House passes the Post-Office appropriation bill (\$327,000,000).

January 2.—The Senate adopts the Burnett-Dillingham immigration bill, by vote of 50 to 7; the measure passed the House on February 4, by vote of 241 to 126. . . . The Senate Committee on the Philippines is informed by ex-President Taft (a former Governor-General of the Philippines) that the pending measure promising self-government to the Filipinos would, in his opinion, stir up insurrection.

January 4.—In the Senate, Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) and Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) call attention to far-reaching consequences, in domestic and international policies of the United States, involved in the adoption of the Administration's Ship Purchase bill.

January 6.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) arraigns the Wilson Administration's attitude toward Mexico, as lacking in policy. . . . The House Committee on Naval Affairs unanimously votes for the creation of a Bureau of Naval Operations, or board of strategy.

January 7.—The House rejects the Senate amendments to the Immigration bill, which would have excluded negroes and favored Belgians.



January 11.—The Senate Philippines Committee closes its hearings on the Jones bill; Secretary of War Garrison testifies in favor of the measure, maintaining that it does not promise early independence and merely grants a larger measure of self-government to the Filipinos.

January 12.—In the House, the resolution of Mr. Mondell (Rep., Wyo.), proposing woman suffrage through an amendment to the Constitution, is rejected by a vote of 204 to 174.

January 14.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the Immigration bill, accepting the elimination of the amendments excluding negroes from entrance and favoring Belgians.

January 15.—The House adopts the conference report on the Immigration bill.

January 16.—The Senate Democrats, in caucus, begin consideration of the Ship Subsidy bill. . . . In the House, the Naval Appropriation bill is reported from committee, carrying provision for two battleships and seventeen submarines.

January 19.—The House adopts the Rivers and Harbors Appropriation bill (\$34,000,000).

January 20.—In the Senate, Mr. Burton (Rep., Ohio) ends a three-day arraignment of the Ship Purchase bill.

#### AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

December 21.—The Public Service Commission of Pennsylvania orders a reduction of 40 cents a ton in the freight rate on anthracite coal carried into Philadelphia from the coal fields of the State. . . . The United States District Court dismisses the Government's suit against the Lehigh Valley Railroad Company, which had been based upon an alleged illegal interest in the Lehigh Valley Coal Sales Company.

December 23.—The President renominates Henry C. Hall for a full term as member of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

December 24.—A revolutionary outbreak in Manila among the more ignorant Filipinos is frustrated by the American authorities. . . . Secretary of the Navy Daniels recommends to Congress the creation of a naval reserve, to be made up of honorably discharged enlisted men.

December 26.—Ninety-four men in Terre Haute (including the mayor, chief of police, sheriff, and two judges) are arrested upon federal indictments charging election frauds.

December 29.—Mayor John F. Hurley, of Salem, is ousted from office by the voters in the first "recall" election ever held in Massachusetts; he was charged with failure to enforce liquor laws.

January 3.—The abolition of the office of coroner in New York is recommended by a special commissioner, after an investigation which disclosed "disgraceful" and "scandalous" conditions.

January 5.—The United States Supreme Court upholds the verdict of the lower court in the Danbury Hatters' case,—that, under the Sherman anti-trust law, the individual members of the labor organization must pay triple damages, aggregating \$260,000, for waging a boycott.

January 7.—The United States District Court at San Francisco declares unconstitutional the Arizona law which required that not more than 20 per cent. of the employees of any firm or individual shall be aliens.

January 8.—President Wilson, speaking at Indianapolis on Jackson Day, defends the policies of his administration, praises its accomplishments, and urges a further program of legislation.

January 12.—An inquiry into the conduct and acts of James M. Sullivan, American Minister to Santo Domingo, is begun at New York before James D. Phelan, the special commissioner appointed by the President.

January 14.—Governor Cole L. Blease, of South Carolina, resigns his office, five days before his term would have expired. . . . Both branches of the Alabama legislature pass a State-wide prohibition bill by large majorities.

January 20.—An anti-alien land ownership bill is adopted by the Idaho House of Representatives.

#### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

December 23.—Queen Wilhelmina, of Holland, signs a "war" loan of \$110,000,000.

January 3.—Baron Wimborne is appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

January 5.—Armies supporting General Carranza and General Villa meet at Puebla, in the most serious engagement of many weeks; the Carranza forces, under General Obregon, are victorious.

January 12.—Don Carlos Melendez is elected President of Salvador.

January 16.—The convention of Constitutionalist leaders in Mexico deposes Provisional President Gutierrez and selects Colonel Roque Gonzales Garza to succeed him.

January 20.—The Carranza government at Vera Cruz declares that ex-President Gutierrez and his followers have surrendered to the Carranza forces.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

December 24-25.—The one hundredth anniversary of the signing of the treaty of Ghent, which ended the war between Great Britain and the United States, is quietly observed in United States, England, and Canada.

December 26.—As a result of conferences between General Scott (Chief of Staff of the United States Army) and Villa and Carranza leaders, the Villa commander moves his force eleven kilometers from the Arizona border.

January 6.—It is learned at Washington that Panama has rejected the adjudication of its boundary dispute with Costa Rica, arbitrated by Chief Justice White of the United States Supreme Court.

January 7.—Announcement is made by Treasury authorities at London and Washington that the balance of international exchange, in favor of Great Britain, has tended to adjust itself, and will not require special treatment by the two governments.

January 16.—The Carranza Government in Mexico raises the embargo against the exportation of oil from the Tampico district, following an emphatic protest from Great Britain voiced through the American State Department.

January 19.—Great Britain refuses to agree not to seize and detain the *Dacia* (a cotton-laden ship about to leave Galveston, Texas, for Holland), recently transferred from German to American ownership.

## OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

December 21.—Lieut. Frederick J. Gerstner, a United States Army aviator, is drowned during an attempted flight from San Diego to Los Angeles in a gale.

December 22.—The stockholders of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railway Company ratify and complete the merger with the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad Company; the consolidated companies will be known as the New York Central Railroad Company.

January 3.—More than 2500 persons (a new record) are admitted to the Municipal Lodging House in New York, on a comparatively mild night.

January 4.—The London Stock Exchange opens, having been closed since July 30; little business is done, under restricting regulations.

January 6.—The worst accident in the ten-year history of the New York Subway results in the death of one woman and in 172 hospital cases; a small fire among high-power feed cables generates poisonous gases and smoke, which partially asphyxiates passengers in nearby trains.

January 8.—The one hundredth anniversary of the final battle between Great Britain and the United States is commemorated at New Orleans.

January 9.—An earth shock lasting 34 seconds destroys three towns and causes extensive damage to many others throughout a large area of central Italy; it is estimated that more than 35,000 people are killed.

January 15.—The price of wheat on the Chicago exchange reaches \$1.45 a bushel, the highest point since 1898, the "Leiter year." . . . A mob near Monticello, Ga., lynches a negro family—a man, his son, and two daughters,—who had been arrested for an assault upon a police official.

January 19.—A second earth shock, without serious damage, is felt in Italy centering in Calabria. . . . Armed guards in a factory near Roosevelt, N. J., fire upon a group of strikers, killing one and wounding nineteen.

## OBITUARY

December 22.—William Stanley West, recently United States Senator from Georgia, 65.

December 23.—Alfred Henry Lewis, the well-known fiction and political writer, 56.

December 24.—John Muir, the noted naturalist, geologist, and explorer, 76. . . . Major-Gen. John Lane, of the Confederate Army. . . . Thomas Whittaker, publisher of church books, 73. . . . Luther S. Livingston, of Harvard, authority on rare books, 48. . . . Margaret Lee, writer of many novels, 73.

December 26.—Gen. Sir Thomas Kelly-Kenny, of the British Army, retired, 74.

December 27.—Dr. Charles Martin Hall, discoverer of the process for producing aluminum cheaply, 51. . . . Most Rev. Patrick William Riordan, Archbishop of the Roman Catholic diocese of San Francisco, 73. . . . Grace Hoadley Dodge, noted for her philanthropies and for charitable and educational work, 58.

December 28.—Leonard Everett Ware, a former tennis champion, 48.

December 29.—Thomas Lynch, prominent in the coke and steel industries, 60.

December 31.—Rear Adm. Henry Lycurgus Howison, U. S. N., retired, 77.

January 2.—Major John Montgomery Wright, for many years marshal of the United States Supreme Court.

January 3.—Percy Holden Illingsworth, chief Liberal whip of the House of Commons, 45.

January 4.—Brig-Gen. Henry Rutgers Mizner, U. S. A., retired, 87.

January 5.—Anton von Werner, the noted German illustrator of historical episodes, 71. . . . Mme. Jeanne Gerville-Reache, the operatic contralto, 34. . . . J. K. P. Hall, former member of Congress from Pennsylvania, 70.

January 6.—Dr. Dudley P. Allen, prominent surgeon of Cleveland, Ohio, 63. . . . Roswell Morse Shurtleff, the artist and illustrator, 75.

January 8.—John Denison Champlin, author and editor of reference works, 80.

January 10.—Marshall P. Wilder, the humorist and entertainer, 55.

January 11.—Katharine Coman, professor emerita at Wellesley College, 57.

January 12.—Brig-Gen. Andrew S. Burt, U. S. A., retired, 75.

January 13.—Gaston Armand de Caillavet, the French dramatist, 45.

January 14.—James Loren Martin, United States District Judge for Vermont, 68. . . . Rev. Richard Meux Benson, founder of the Society of St. John the Evangelist (the Cowley Fathers).

January 15.—Vice-Adm. George Strong Nares, of the British Navy, retired, noted for deep-sea explorations in the Arctic, 83.

January 16.—John E. Parsons, the eminent New York lawyer and political reformer, 85. . . . Rear-Adm. Morris Robinson Slidell Mackenzie, U. S. N., retired, 66.

January 17.—Lieut.-Gen. Anatole Mikailovich Stoessel, Russian defender of Port Arthur against the Japanese, 67. . . . Gen. John I. Rinaker, veteran of the Civil War and ex-Congressman from Illinois, 86. . . . Rt. Hon. Lord Justice Sir William Rann Kennedy, a British authority on maritime law, 69. . . . Mme. Carola Malvina, formerly a well-known teacher of dancing, 69. . . . Smith McPherson, Judge of the United States District Court in Iowa, 65.

January 18.—Rev. Rollin Augustus Sawyer, D. D., Presbyterian minister and writer, of New Jersey, 84. . . . Brig-Gen. Charles Henry Tompkins, U. S. A., retired, 64. . . . Col. John A. Joyce, of Washington, D. C., soldier, poet, and philosopher, 72.

January 19.—George Byron Frothingham, the comic opera singer famed in the rôle of "Friar Tuck," 78.

January 20.—Bishop Thomas M. A. Burke, of the Roman Catholic diocese of Albany, 75. . . . Prof. Andrew Wheeler Phillips, former dean of the Yale Graduate School, 70. . . . Prof. Louis Lindsay Dyche, of the University of Kansas, zoölogist and explorer, 58. . . . Eugene Rostand, the French economist, 71.





PICTURESQUE WHITBY, WITH ITS ANCIENT ABBEY, WAS ONE OF THE TOWNS BOMBARDED



WRECKED HOUSES AT SCARBOROUGH, CALLED THE "QUEEN OF ENGLISH WATERING PLACES"

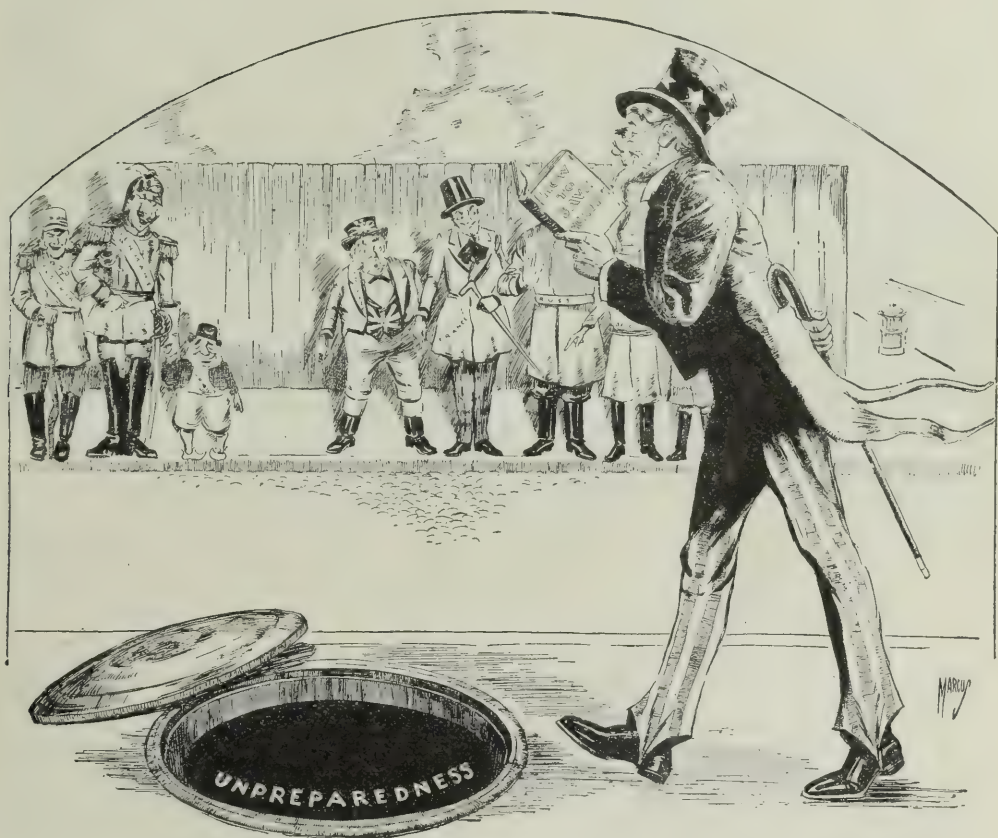


Photographs © by American Press Association

SOME OF THE DESTRUCTION AT THE SUMMER RESORT TOWN OF HARTLEPOOL

SOME RESULTS OF THE GERMAN NAVAL RAID ON THE EAST COAST OF ENGLAND  
LAST DECEMBER

# COMMENTS IN CARICATURE ON CURRENT TOPICS



"WATCH YOUR STEP"  
(A cartoon suggested by the discussion of American defenses)  
From the *Times* (New York)



WHICH WOULD BE THE MORE HUMANE -

To stay by the Philippines in an advisory capacity, Or to pull out entirely and let them settle matters  
as we are now— in their own way?

From the *Register & Leader* (Des Moines)





### THE FRIENDLY SPIRIT

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



PRESIDENT WILSON TO THE ENGLISH LION: "SCAT!"  
From the *Sun* (New York)

The cartoons on this page refer to President Wilson's protest to Great Britain regarding her treatment of American shipping. (See editorial comment on page 140.)



© 1914 by John T. McCutcheon

BRITANNIA MUST BE MORE CAREFUL HOW SHE  
"WAVES THE RULES"

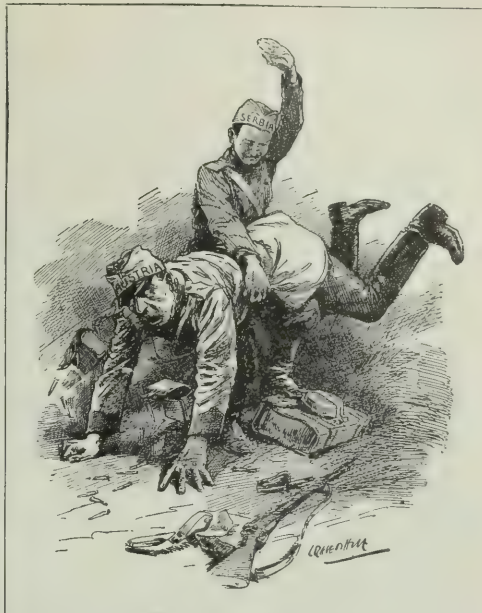
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)





"FINISHED WITH SERBIA"

AUSTRIA: "Go away, little fellow, it's your big brother's turn now!"  
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



FULFILMENT

AUSTRIA: "I said all along this was going to be a punitive expedition."  
From *Punch* (London)

Reproduced on this page are four cartoons from foreign sources, dealing with the European War in its Southeastern phases,—the Austro-Servian operations and Turkey's participation. *Kikeriki* and *Die Muskete*, both

published in Vienna, naturally represent Austrian opinion; London *Punch* reflects an English view, while *De Amsterdammer* is an illustrated weekly from the neutral nation of The Netherlands.



THE SWORD OF DAMOCLES—MADE IN GERMANY

THE ALLIES: "Is this the second 'surprise' which Germany has promised us?"  
From *Die Muskete* (Vienna)



SMOKING THE GERMAN PIPE HAS NOT HAD THE MOST AGREEABLE RESULTS FOR TURKEY  
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)





BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF WESTERN PART OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXHIBITION

(Showing domes of four palaces, "Food Products," "Agriculture," "Education" and "Liberal Arts," built on plan of Greek Cross. The Palace of Fine Arts and its lagoon, in the distance, looking toward the Golden Gate)

# CALIFORNIA'S INVITATION TO THE COUNTRY

BY SENATOR JAMES D. PHELAN

[Mr. Phelan, at our request, sends the following statement in the form of a letter to the editor. It fitly characterizes the manner in which Mr. Phelan's great State has set her majestic house in order, to welcome the American people as her guests in this historic year.—THE EDITOR.]

AMERICANS living on the eastern seaboard have been accustomed to travel freely in Europe, seeking recreation and information, and during these excursions they have come into contact with the artificial life of the old world and the traditions of the past, which do not make for a better understanding and appreciation of our democracy. Washington said that America was what it is on account of its separation from Europe by so wide an ocean. The ocean is no longer wide. But Europe this year will not lure Americans from their homes, and the great body of tourists will doubtless look to their own country for recreation and knowledge.

It so happens that America is celebrating on the western coast one of the great achievements of Peace, the realized dream of the earliest navigators of connecting the At-

lantic and the Pacific oceans by a canal. The celebration of this extraordinary event, not lessened in the public interest by the destructive fury of war, will, beginning February 20, be held by authorization of the Congress of the United States in the fascinating and heroic city of San Francisco and under the mild skies of California, and far south, close to the Mexican border, the city of San Diego, where Cabrillo, the discoverer, first landed, will also contribute by a fair to the entertainment of the nation's guests.

California the beautiful, famed for its mountains and valleys, its perfect highways and attractive resorts, is well calculated to meet every demand of the tourist tide turned back from Europe. And then, again, it is not without the charm of antiquity, because it was discovered by the Spaniards, who es-

tablished their missions, pueblos and presidios, the outposts of civilization, less than fifty years after the discovery of the New World by Columbus, and, what is not generally known, forty years before the Pilgrims landed in New England, the English language was spoken within view of the Exposition site by the crew of the *Golden-Hinde*. This caraval bore the redoubtable Sir Francis Drake to our shore, whence he departed to double the Cape of Good Hope, and so, for the first time, circumnavigate the globe.

"See America first" is a worthy sentiment for Americans. The exigencies of the times pleasantly force this determination upon them, so the war in Europe will really have a great educational value at home. Then the Exposition, containing the latest in art, science and invention, unparalleled in the magnitude of its scope and more beautiful in the architecture and color of its buildings than any which has gone before, will be in itself a sufficient inducement to travel. California

is famed for its hospitality, and the new San Francisco, the most modern city in the world, has every convenience for the health and comfort of the visitor. Therefore, the American people, moved by a patriotic impulse, should turn their faces towards the West, and so, at the same time, acquire a knowledge of their own country and the latest achievements of the world's civilization.

To dispel a doubt, permit me to say that the four nights of travel, by train, between San Francisco and New York, make a journey not only comfortable and safe, but even luxurious, for the rail has kept up, so far as possible, with the sail in meeting the demands of the traveler, who in our day and generation, wants the best.

California is fully awake to the responsibility which the Congress has imposed upon her, and will worthily celebrate the completion of the canal and provide an entertainment commensurate with the dignity and importance of the occasion. Let all Americans help to make it a success.

# THE MEANING OF THE CANAL

BY BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER

(President of the University of California)

[California is celebrating the greatest achievement of our time, and Dr. Wheeler, president of the University of California, eminent as a student of national and worldwide conditions, interprets in this article the larger significance of the water route. In terse, courageous sentences, he deals frankly with a good many current topics of moment.—THE EDITOR.]

THE canal is open. It was begun with righteous promptitude, built under suppression of graft and yellow fever, and opened on time and on equal terms to all nations. Had there not been a considerable exercise of the promptitude, particularly in securing right of way, the canal would not have yet been begun; had it not been for army engineering and army sanitation, no man knows when the work would have been completed; and, had it not been for the repeal of the tolls-exemption act, we should have had various and ever-recurring reason to wish we had never tried to build a canal at all.

However we may interpret the *wording* of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, there is no reasonable doubt what the negotiators thought it meant. However we may be disposed to the question of ship subsidies, we must admit that the particular form of subsidy represented in the exemption is peculiarly bad.

It applies to the coastwise shipping which needs aid least, being protected already by the exclusion of foreign ships from the coastwise trade,—and, what is worst, awards its aid not evenly to all, but only to such as may happen to pass through the Canal. This is a perfectly arbitrary and unjust distinction. Though it is a mischief we have escaped, it is worth while to dwell upon it, for we escaped it by a very little, and some very good and straight men thought quite crookedly concerning it. We are furthermore as a people rather too handy at forgetting.

## AS AN ACHIEVEMENT

As it is, however, the canal and its building are a distinguished credit to our government, and it even looks as if its administration would shortly become such. In fact, it may well be that the building and operation of the Canal will give the world the best concrete assurance on the largest scale yet



offered, that democracy is able to avail itself of the best expert service, and set upon itself the restraint necessary to such use. If so, we shall have to reckon this by-product among the chief benefits of the Canal. The whole work bears a good name for its "politics,"—or relative lack thereof; and its beginning, its carrying out, and its ending bear witness severally to the firmness and wisdom of three successive administrations, to each of which, as far as the Canal is concerned, the American people, in spite of its wont, can afford to be ungrudgingly thankful.

It is worthy of note that two pieces of work outside the country proper, namely, the government of the Philippines and the building of the canal, rank as the most satisfactory administrative achievements standing to the credit of our usually lax and wasteful democracy. It is evidently good for democracy to have something real to do.

Now that we have the Canal, we want to know what its effects are to be. The figures regarding its use are, however, badly vitiated by the existence of war. In October, 1914, the total tonnage passing through the Canal was 377,699 tons; in November, 445,266 tons. This average extended through a year would yield about half the tonnage estimated before the opening of the Canal for the year 1915. The tolls on the basis of \$1.20 per ton would amount to slightly under six million dollars for the year as against the 'nineteen and a quarter millions estimated as necessary to make the Canal self-supporting, including three per cent. interest on the \$375,000,000 invested in the Canal and one per cent. for sinking fund. It seems never, however, to have been expected that the Canal should pay for itself during the earlier years. If it came to do so by 1925, that would even more than satisfy expectation.

#### EFFECT ON COAST-TO-COAST TRAFFIC

The coast-to-coast tonnage passing the Canal in October, 1914, was 174,245 tons; in November, 179,656 tons, being somewhat less than half the total tonnage. The total tonnage is by reason of the war far smaller than it otherwise would have been, but the coast-to-coast tonnage is double the expectation. Shippers are used to paying on the Tehuantepec or Panama Railway charges which Professor Johnson shows are essentially five times as great as the Panama Canal charges. This so palpable advantage naturally sends the whole volume of the coast-

to-coast trade from the very beginning through the Canal.

It seems likely that the Canal will first make itself felt in drawing closer together the shores of North and South America. The wider developments will come later and slowly. Trade has its habits like everything human. Outside of the Americas there will be no sudden overturning in the courses of trade, and even there the development will follow lines already indicated before the Canal was opened. I quote from Professor Lincoln Hutchinson: "In nearly every Pacific country, in the past fifteen years, the United States has increased its share in both the import and export trade. To Mexico our proportion of the exports has grown from 56 per cent. of the total to 62 per cent., while Germany has remained stationary at 11 per cent., and England has declined from 18 per cent. to 13 per cent. To Central America our sales have grown from 38 per cent. to 41 per cent. . . . and the English have fallen from 33 to 30 per cent." On the west coast of South America, taken as a whole, we rose from 14 to 19 per cent.; England dropped from 44 to 41 per cent. In Japan we rose from 27 to 29 per cent.; England dropped from 49 to 45 per cent.

There can be no doubt that it is the points along the western coast of the Americas which are most directly and abruptly affected by the opening of the Canal. San Francisco, which was formerly thirteen thousand miles distant from the opposite coast by water is now but five thousand. Furthermore, all west-American ports which formerly were about as far from New York as from Liverpool now find themselves drawn within the circle of New York trade, and 2500 miles nearer the latter than the former.

Herein lies a factor that brooks no gradual process of development. It means revolution. It means, for example, eleven days less time for Callao to get an order filled in New York than in Liverpool.

It means that the region on the globe over which the Panama route is dominant from New York outward, in competition with the Suez route from Liverpool outward, stretches northwest to include Northern China from Shanghai onward, and Japan, Eastern Russia and the Pacific islands; and southwest to include New Zealand and Eastern Australia. The opening of the Canal directly affects, as Professor Hutchinson has expressed it, "all the lands which are touched by Pacific waters ex-

<sup>1</sup> Johnson, Emory R., Special Commissioner on Canal Tolls: "Questions of Public Policy:—Value of the Panama Canal" New Haven, 1913, p. 95.

<sup>2</sup> Hutchinson, Lincoln: "New Opportunities in the Pacific," *Yale Review*, July, 1914, p. 720.

cept Southeastern Asia and the East Indies."

The countries so affected include "about one-fifth of the land surface of the earth," and embrace a population aggregating "one-third of the human race,"—a hitherto "un-exploited area in the realm of international trade." The northwestern corner of the area is marked by Shanghai, which is 10,649 miles distant from New York by Panama and 10,607 miles from Liverpool by Suez, while the southwestern corner is marked by Melbourne, which is 10,028 miles distant from New York by Panama and 11,654 miles from Liverpool by the Suez route.

#### THE CANAL BUILT FOR NATIONAL PURPOSES

It is evident that the Canal will have,—must have,—with the process of the years, an overwhelming influence in readjusting the conditions of human life upon the globe. And yet it is questionable whether its present owner built it for the sake of Ecuador and Japan and the trade routes and the unveiling of the Pacific and the joining of the world-halves.

I should rather say there is no question that he did not. The thought of all these things aided to dignify the task and give it background; but the United States Government built the Canal in order to join together the two coasts of the country and give it compactness. The people voted it in their hearts while they were looking on to see the *Oregon* pick its lonely way around the Cape. Europeans generally allege that it was purely with a military purpose that we undertook the work. That is inaccurate. Except for a few professionals, our militarism is limited to some sudden outbursts of short duration. Except when we are ourselves interfered with or hampered or crossed, we do not in general approve of war,—at any rate are disinclined to systematic preparation for war.

We shall have to say on the whole that we built the Canal for national purposes, in spite of the *Oregon* incident and of the fortification of the Canal. The first form of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, the one which John Hay always insisted was the right one, forbade the fortification. It is quite possible still that Hay was right. Only time can tell. It is certain, however, that as we drew nearer the actual work, we became increasingly distrustful of a vague protection by the world at large. A terror seized us as we came to realize how near our vitals lay the interests of the Canal, and we were unwilling to take any risk.

The Canal is ours. We have for the time

being more interest in it than anybody else, but the lapse of the years and the usage of men will establish that great waterway ultimately in a protection surer than any one nation can create with walls and howitzers. There are four connections in which the Canal opening will be immediately felt:

#### HOW THE CANAL WILL MAKE ITSELF FELT

1. The eastern and western coasts of the United States will be drawn closer together. They have been wide apart. Their interests are different. They do not understand each other. Closer relations will, however, show how admirably they supplement each other. The West yields the raw materials of industry and foodstuffs. The East is industrial. Interchange with the development of interdependence will make their very differences a source of union.

2. The west coast of North America will be made accessible to the world. All through the ages of man on the globe the Pacific has been a waste and neglected area. In our geographies the world maps always begin and end within it; the Pacific is as good as never in the middle of the map. It is so with the days; they end somewhere in the Pacific, and then begin all over again with new number and dress before they land in Asia.

Everyone who has looked out onto the Pacific from the beaches and bluffs of California must have felt it a lonesome ocean. And California with its vast plains and scant population often seems a lonesome land. Though evidently created for the special use of humans, it has had to wait long for humans to come and find it. It lies far off under the sunset, a blessed island pent up between twelve hundred miles of mountains and desert on the one side and five thousand miles of barren sea on the other.

The narrow Pacific Coast strip of North America which California's position represents has been hitherto about the most isolated part of the usable world. Chile was much more accessible to ships from Europe. Ships which continued their voyage to San Francisco had not only to cover seventy degrees of latitude, but must traverse westward the equivalent of the width of the United States; for Valparaiso is in the longitude of New York, not that of San Francisco.

Immigrants from Europe, who formerly had to add a long and uncomfortable trans-continental journey to their sea journey, will now be set down directly upon the pier at



San Francisco, and at a cost, including food, not more than eight dollars greater than the rate to New York.

The density of population in California is fifteen; that of the entire strip of western countries from Alaska to Chile is seven. Across the way China has 275, Japan 350. If we allow one-half of California's area for mountains and give the remainder a density equal to that of Rhode Island the population of the State would be forty millions. There is evidently some colossal leveling-up to be done. Twenty-five years of free influx from Europe will abate the Oriental peril, at least for the present.

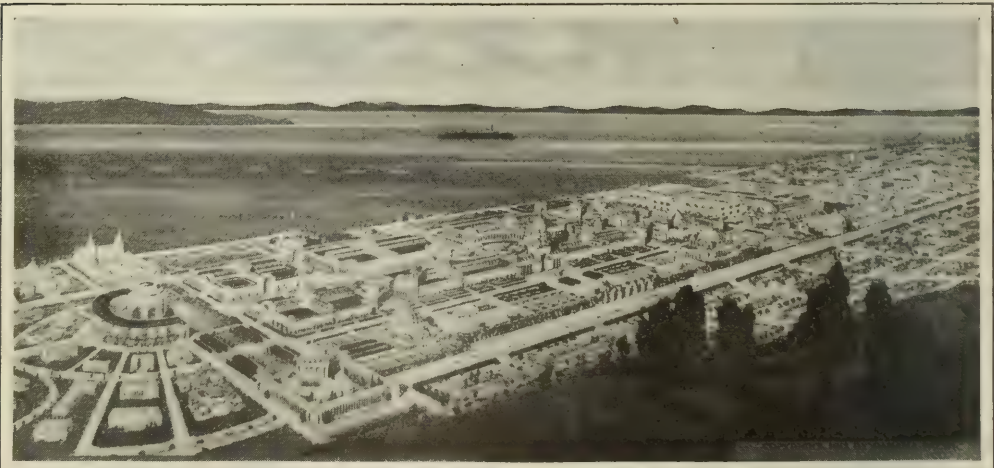
3. The states and peoples of South America are to be drawn decisively nearer to us. Not only are the people of the west coast brought into intimate relations with Atlantic States of North America, but northern and eastern South America will open an entirely new connection with the Pacific States. More than ever is it clear that there is a Pan-American entity. All the Pan-American states have a common interest as regards European entanglements. All must unite on a common basis in administering it and defending it. We have no longer occasion to assert for the purpose any exclusive or unique position.

4. Japan and our Pacific Coast are drawn more closely together into a common area of trade and intercourse. Each will have to know what is going on with the other. Japan's great-circle route to Panama on her shortest way into the Atlantic passes the Golden Gate only a hundred miles out.

Japan is no longer an occasional neighbor. We must make up our minds to settle down and live in the same world, even if not in the same country, with the Japanese. Our misunderstandings must be frankly met and boldly and fully stated,—not glossed over with formal smiles. We and our sons and our son's sons will have to know them and deal with them. We must get their point of view and understand their case. It is the only way. We cannot ignore them; they are in our world, and very much in it. We have no hope in violence. Wars settle nothing,—not even who is strongest.

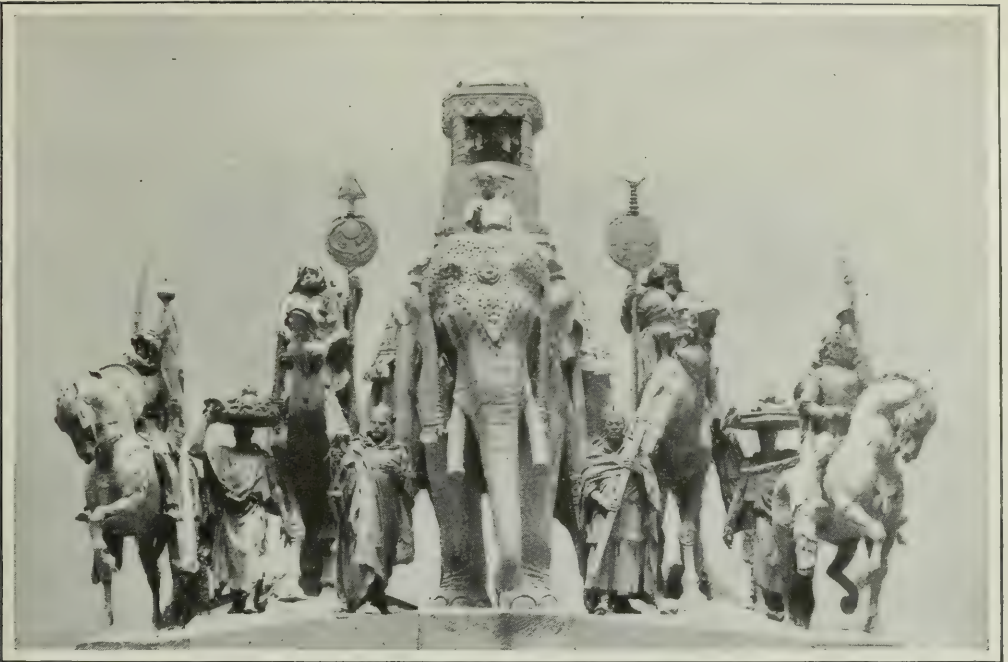
#### ON TO THE ORIENT!

The cutting of the Canal is the avenging of Columbus. When he started across the seas he was seeking, not America, but the Old Orient of India and China, and their gold and spices. The heart of men had always yearned unto the East and its riches. There was nothing new in the object of Columbus' search. All that was new was the direction. Columbus went west. Judged in terms of its original purpose his voyage was a total failure. He started straight for Asia, but ran upon the long, broad dyke of land we now call the Americas. It has cost more than four centuries for him and those who swarmed after him to traverse and conquer the hindering dyke which rose in his path and forbade him Asia. The opening of the Canal is the first cutting of the dyke, the avenging of Columbus, the end of the four-century halt, the resumption of the advance toward the Orient.



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GENERAL VIEW OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION AT SAN FRANCISCO



SKETCH MODEL OF THE GROUP, "NATIONS OF THE EAST," SURMOUNTING THE ARCH OF THE RISING SUN IN THE COURT OF THE UNIVERSE—McKim, Mead & White, Architects

(The central figure, a great elephant representing India, is 188 feet above the floors of the court; the group itself is 42 feet in height. Upon the west side of the court is an arch typifying Occidental civilization. Reading from left to right, the figures are: Arab Sheik, Negro Servitor, Mohammedan, Arab Falconer, Elephant, Tibetan Lama, Mohammedan, Negro Servitor, Mongolian Horseman. The collective work of Messrs. A. Sterling Calder, Leo Lentelli and F. G. R. Roth)

# ARCHITECTURE AT THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT

IT is fitting and proper that California, famed for her "heaven-kissing hills" and her luxuriant lowlands, should have builded her Panama-Pacific Exposition, that opens this month at San Francisco, on a titanic and lavish scale, with features that surpass in grandeur all previous American fairs. Art has taken its pitch from nature, and the result is a superb symphonic pageant in Architecture, Color and Landscape Gardening.

From a utilitarian point of view the buildings of an exposition need be nothing more than well-lighted sheds consisting of four walls and a roof. But from an educational aspect it is necessary that they have, singly, architectural features of a high order, that they may demonstrate to visitors the charm of architectural beauty; and that they have, collectively, the form of a well laid out

miniature city, in order that they may further demonstrate the efficacy of well-considered civic planning. It is likely that the Panama-Pacific Exposition will adequately fulfil these requisites.

Doubtless ninety-nine persons out of a hundred who gave the matter any thought, expected that the buildings of the exposition would be more or less duplicates of the celebrated Mission buildings of the Pacific Coast. There would have been strong arguments in favor of such designing. Just as the buildings at the Jamestown Exposition, by being all Eastern Colonial gave an effect of unity, and an American atmosphere, that was quite satisfactory and appropriate, so it would have been appropriate to have had all the San Francisco exhibit in Mission style. This, however, is not the case.



Perhaps the main reason that the Mission style was rejected, was, because it had been already preëmpted by the San Diego Exposition, in charge of Messrs. Cram, Goodhue & Ferguson. It may be also, that the Mission style was thought to be somewhat somber for festival purposes.

A gala day appearance is a prerequisite for an exposition aspect; we have always associated the exposition with minarets, domes, towers, flagstuffs, flags, banners, gonfalons, steeples, finials, projecting cornices, brackets, escutcheons, labels, arches, balustrades, colonnades, fountains and cascades.

We therefore find that although Spanish architecture has been used to some extent, it is not the Mission Spanish, but the more highly ornate High Renaissance Spanish and the more oriental Hispano-Moorish. But the predominating styles are the Greco-Roman and the Italian Renaissance classical modes, harmonizing with the "Tower of Jewels."

#### THE TOWER OF JEWELS

As the Howard Tower was the feature of the Buffalo Exposition, so the Hastings "Tower of Jewels" is the feature of the San Francisco Exposition. It is classical in design with an oriental minaret effect at its summit. Concealed batteries of powerful projectors will play at night upon tens of thousands of hand-cut glass "jewels" that hang from this building, simulating the flashing of great diamonds, rubies and emeralds.

The Arch of the Rising Sun, to the McKim, in feeling arches only with designed is more sance;



PALACE OF EDUCATION, REFLECTED IN THE FINE ARTS LAGOON

(The entrance to the palace is through "the half-dome of philosophy," this arch being 113 feet in height. The dome is 160 feet in diameter, all of the main palace domes being of that dimension)

which is the eastern entrance Court of the Universe by Mead & White, is classic ing recalling the celebrated of Titus and Constantine, more massive in propor The Court of Palms, its square Italian tower, by George W. Kelham, severely Italian Renais



VIEW OF THE EXPOSITION—"THE TOWER OF JEWELS," IN THE MIDDLE; "PALACE OF

(The Tower of Jewels, by Carrère & Hastings, classical in design, is 433 feet in height, 1 acre at the base, 100,000 hand-cut glass "jewels." At the end of the Palace of Varied Industries is seen one of the Italian of "Victory" is 110 feet, and to the top of the central

while the Court of the Four Seasons, by A NOVEL EXPERIMENT IN AN ALL-COLOR EXPOSITION

Henry Bacon, is quite Roman with its massive colonnade and simple balustrade.

Mr. Mullgardt has contrived an oriental combination of forms in which he has built the Court of Abundance, and the oriental spirit has also entered slightly into the design of the Palace of Horticulture.

Modern French feeling is found in the Festival Hall by Robert Farquhar.

Spanish Renaissance characterizes the Palace of Varied Industries with its rich doorway copied after the "Hospital of the Holy Cross" in Toledo, Spain. This is "one of eight palaces which are composite in design, each façade partaking of the particular style of architecture dominating the court on which it fronts."

The Palace of Fine Arts, designed by B. R. Maybeck, shows a classic contour.



THE ARCH OF THE RISING SUN  
McKim, Mead & White

(At the eastern entrance to the Court of the Universe. Its height, including the sculptural group, is 203 feet. One of those conventional architectural forms that the cultivated mind accepts as connoting peaceful and substantial life after victory or achievement; whose massiveness helps to "tie down" the surrounding walls and colonnades, and whose purpose—it is a portal of entrance—serves to control egress and exit in orderly fashion. The crowning feature representing "The Nations of the East," the collective work of Messrs. A. Sterling Calder, Leo Lentelli and Frederick G. R. Roth, forms a focal point which catches the bright California sunshine)

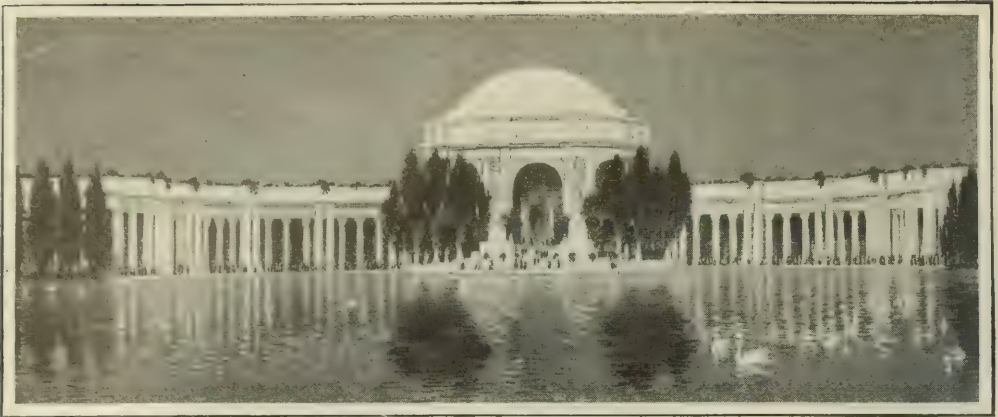
The story is told that when Praxiteles was asked which of his statues he most highly esteemed, he replied the one Nicias painted! Fifty years ago it would have been incomprehensible to artists and public alike that the Greeks should have admired colored statues and buildings. Artists and public had for generations associated the classical with the pure white of marble. Today, however, taste has changed, education has taught us that the Greeks painted their statues and buildings, and it is not surprising then that the news comes from the Pacific Coast that the Panama Exposition is entirely polychromatic. "There is to be absolutely no dead white used in the decorations, or for any of the exposition buildings."



HORTICULTURE," TO OUR LEFT, "PALACE OF VARIED INDUSTRIES" TO OUR RIGHT

the dominating building of the Exposition, and one of the most beautiful, being illuminated at night with over Towers; above entrances to colonnades. The height to cornice is 70 feet, to the gables on which is set a figure dome 160 feet, the floor space being 205,100 square feet)





PALACE OF FINE ARTS—FROM A DRAWING

(A fire-proof building describing an arc of 1,100 feet; B. R. Maybeck, architect)

ings. No white bunting, for instance, will be allowed in any of the fête decorations. The cement walks, which are to be used instead of the customary gravel, are to be of the same soft tone as the buildings,—the buff of travertin." Such was the scheme of Jules Guérin, the director of color and decoration, and for several years he has been busy perfecting methods of operation, and experimenting in results. For it should be remembered that while exposition planning and

building has become crystallized by precedents, the coloring of an enormous area (on 635 acres) is an entirely new proposition. The attempt made at Buffalo in the Pan-American Exposition did not comprehend the tinting of every building and every surface.

A brief résumé of the color scheme will indicate its great latitude.

The material used for covering the building is not exactly like "staff" (which was used at Chicago, where, when tinted, it had



THE PALACE OF HORTICULTURE

(Largest glass dome in existence, covering five acres. It was suggested by the mosque of the Sultan Ahmed I at Constantinople, and is 152 feet in diameter and 186 feet in height. The palace proper is in the style of the French Renaissance. Bakewell & Brown were the architects)

to be repainted three or four times.) It is a heavier mixture, more like concrete, and the coloring matter, mostly ochre, is mixed with the sand and cement,—hence its color will be more or less permanent.

The side walls and the columns are the warm buff of travertin, and like that limestone, the texture is porous. So that the pores creating tiny shadows give the surface a slightly speckled or stippled effect, thus preventing the glare that is usually refracted from a smooth uniformly light surface.

The buff colonnades are relieved against the inner walls of Pompeian red. The capitals and friezes are picked out in gold, blue, and a rich burnt orange. Some of the domes are gold, others copper-green. Some of the roofs the old red of Spanish tiles, and some cerulean blue. The ceilings of the arches are a strong Italian blue. Some of the more important columns and arches are colored to simulate Siena marble.

#### THE SCULPTURE

The sculpture at the exposition, under the direction of Karl Bitter and A. Sterling Calder, is of two kinds, as is usual with exhibition decoration,—that which symbolizes "Victory," "Abundance," "The Seasons," and similar allegories, and that which depicts some historic event or portrays some historic figure or ethnic type.

Of the symbolic genre is Robert I. Ait-



MAIN PORTAL OF THE PALACE OF VARIED INDUSTRIES, SPANISH RENAISSANCE

(A copy of Cardinal Mendoza's portal at the Hospital of the Holy Cross at Toledo, Spain. The "Winged Victory" and the figures in the tympanum are by Ralph Stackpole. Bliss & Faville, architects)

ken's "Fountain of the Earth," a thoroughly modern composition, in which the sculptor has very wisely kept in mind that his glyptic panorama is most properly a frame or pedestal for the glass globe 18 feet in diameter



COURT OF PALMS, ITALIAN RENAISSANCE

(Its two towers, which are each 200 feet high, are not seen in the photograph. The broad frieze with a repeat decoration serves admirably as a horizontal emphasis, an effect that is always valuable where many large buildings are grouped together. George W. Kelham, architect)





"THE FOUNTAIN OF THE EARTH," IN THE "COURT OF ABUNDANCE"

(Four groups typifying primitive man, and periods in his progressive civilization, surround a globe 18 feet in diameter, which appears to revolve, and over which streams of water, poured from mouths of prehistoric creatures, play. Robert I. Aitken, sculptor)

which will appear to revolve as cleverly prepared lights illuminate it and water plays over it from the mouths of prehistoric creatures.

The historic figures are striking in silhouette and well placed; among them are Charles Rumsey's "Pizzaro," and Charles H. Niehaus's "Cortez." Mr. Niehaus having modeled the forceful equestrian figure of St. Louis, for the St. Louis Exposition, has been able to make his "Cortez" an exceptionally imposing effigy. A number of dignified heroic figures by John Flanagan adorn the "Tower of Jewels."

Ethnic figures that stand quite alone like "The Pioneer," by Solon H. Borglum, "The End of the Trail,"—an Indian, by James E. Frazer, or that from part of a more or less symbolic group, as those in the "Nations of the West" and "Nations of the East," the combined work of Messrs. Calder, Lentelli, and Roth, show our sculptors' ability in portraying racial types, that are not echoes of classical, or French, sculpture.

#### AN OBJECT LESSON IN ARCHITECTURAL DESIGNING

As an object lesson in architectural designing the value of the Exposition can-

not be overestimated. All American architectural colleges and departments would do well to take their students to the Exposition and, applying the laboratory method to their studies, use the buildings as subjects for analysis; the student, note-book in hand, primed with certain data to be used for comparison, would reap in a month's time benefits that would not accrue from a year's study in the lecture-room. For instance, standing before any of the arches, he would refer to data such as a memorandum that the "Arc de Triomphe" in Paris is 162 feet high,—the "Arch of the Rising Sun" being 160 feet, the group on top adding 43 feet to its height. Before the "Palace of Horti-



DETAIL OF "FOUNTAIN OF THE EARTH" —ROBERT I. AITKEN



"THE ALASKAN," DETAIL OF THE LARGE GROUP,  
"NATIONS OF THE WEST"

(Not an echo of classical sculpture, not a copy of French cleverness, but a genuine expression of American sentiment, prophetic of a native art that is to come, based upon sane and virile principles. Upon the same principles that led the Egyptian sculptors to carve Libyans and Asiatics on their temple walls, and Greeks to carve Medes and Persians. This figure may be interpreted as has been interpreted Millet's "Man with a Hoe." F. G. R. Roth, sculptor)



"THE END OF THE TRAIL"

(It is, perhaps, more in such thoroughly American subjects, as this Indian, and Mr. Roth's "Alaskan," than in purely decorative works, that we find the real earnestness of our sculptors. They make a strong argument in favor of untrammelled subjects, and students would do well to ponder more than casually over these monuments at the exposition. James E. Frazer, sculptor)



"THE FOUNTAIN OF CERES"

(The esplanade leading from the "Court of the Four Seasons," Henry Bacon, architect, to the Mariana. In the background the great half dome of entrance from "Court of Palms," with sculptures by Albert Jaegers, "Rain," "Sunshine" and "Harvest," and still farther to the south the Italian towers above the entrances to colonnades which surround the "Court of Palms." Designs borrowed from Spanish heraldry of early California days are used in the banners which screen the lights here. "The Fountain of Ceres," is by Evelyn Beatrice Longman)





"FRANCISCO PIZZARO," CONQUEROR OF PERU

(The heroic dimensions of the Exposition sculpture are indicated by comparison of this statue and the figure of the man beneath the horse. Charles Rumsey, sculptor)

culture," with its dome 152 feet in diameter, he would refer to a note that the Pantheon dome is 142 feet wide; while in seeing that almost every building in the Exposition is domed, it would be food for thought for him to recall the statement of Ferguson that "no temple in the ancient world,—with the solitary exception of the Pantheon at Rome,—was lighted by a horizontal, as contradistinguished from a vertical, opening." What an object lesson for the student it would be for him to hold in his hand a photograph of some Old World masterpiece,—either an entire façade or a perfect detail,—and compare it with some adaptation on the Exposition grounds! To take, perhaps, a photograph of the portal of the Hospital of the Holy Cross, in Toledo, and, standing before its replica on the "Palace of Education," to find out how the American sculptural figures fit into their framings in comparison with their counterparts of the Spanish Renaissance.

Among the memoranda the student visitor should have with him would also be any data he might find relating to architects' concepts of their own designs,—for example, how immensely more significant than would be a guidebook description of the "Tower of Jewels" is this authentic credo from the pen of its architect, Thomas Hastings, that was published in the *Architectural Record* last year. How graphically it explains certain fundamental principles that are back of all serious architectural designs and yet are rarely known to the general public. Soon after the first meeting of the board of architects, Mr. Hastings wrote:

It was my good fortune to have allotted to me the central elevation of the Court of Honor, including the tower and main entrance to the court. Messrs. McKim, Mead & White were given the other two sides of the court. It was a very difficult problem to solve, because there are always so many solutions to a problem which on the one hand presents little restraint and on the other suggests little for reasons of utility. An added difficulty was found in the realization that a tower of the general dimensions agreed upon had to be designed to compose with, and harmonize with, the classic, and almost Roman, architecture, of the other two sides of the courtyard. There seems to be no precedent for a tower entrance of these dimensions in classic architecture. The tower will be of large proportions,—429 feet 5 inches high and 125 feet 6 inches broad at the base, with an arch 109 feet high and a 60-foot span.

It also seemed necessary to increase the scale of the order so that it would dominate as a central motive. At either side, flanking the tower, is a recall of the columns and entablatures of the main court, enclosing two small courts 109 feet by 64 feet in size, also serving as entrance vestibules to the main court of honor.



ROTUNDA TO THE PALACE OF MACHINERY—CLASSICAL

(The Machinery Palace is the largest of the Exposition buildings and the largest frame building in the world, being 972 feet long, 372 feet wide and 110 feet high. Ward & Blohme, architects)



"THE ARRIVAL ON THE PACIFIC COAST"

(A mural for the "Arch of the Setting Sun," a pageant containing idealized portraits of Father Serra, Bret Harte, William Kieth, Grizzly Adams, Taylor, and other early Californians. Its companion canvas portrays the departure of the pioneer youth from his snowbound New England home. Painted by Frank Vincent Du Mond)

I believe it is perfectly legitimate, architecturally, to design temporary buildings of an exposition in a character that one would not contemplate for a permanent building, and this is not merely because the work is to exist only for a year, but because the exposition motive is made up not only of the educational aspect, but also has purposes of diversion and amusement, and it is, therefore, proper to relax our seriousness to some extent. Nevertheless, I think there is always the danger that we may go too far in this direction and make our work overfantastic. This is hardly justified because the large amount of money expended should be devoted to the construction of buildings which will be educational as well as diverting, and be an object-lesson both to the public and to the profession.

#### MURAL PAINTERS LIMITED COLORS—INDIRECT LIGHTING

The mural painters, Messrs. Bancroft, Dodge, Du Mond, Holloway, Reid, and Simmons, and the English decorator Brangwyn, have been limited to a palette of five colors: yellow ochre, burnt orange, light vermillion, cerulean blue, and white, and their decorations may be seen at night as clearly as by daylight. Indeed, the night illumination aims to give the whole exposition a daylight effect. There is absolutely no direct lighting; all is indirect lighting. Myriads of lamps are hidden away in cornices and in

the fluting at the backs of columns, that will cause a daylight illumination upon the painting. While searchlights from the bay, especially designed, will reveal the façades of the



FAÇADE OF "COURT OF ABUNDANCE"—FROM A DRAWING—ORIENTAL

(Has grand cascade in form of stairway. The striking effect of Mr. Mullgardt's "Fisheries Building," at Chicago, insures the color scheme of this composition. Louis C. Mullgardt, architect)



palaces in a flood of soft light not hitherto associated with night-time illumination. W. D'A. Ryan, who had charge of the illumination at the Hudson-Fulton celebration, New York, has devised this system of lighting in consultation with Mr. Guérin.

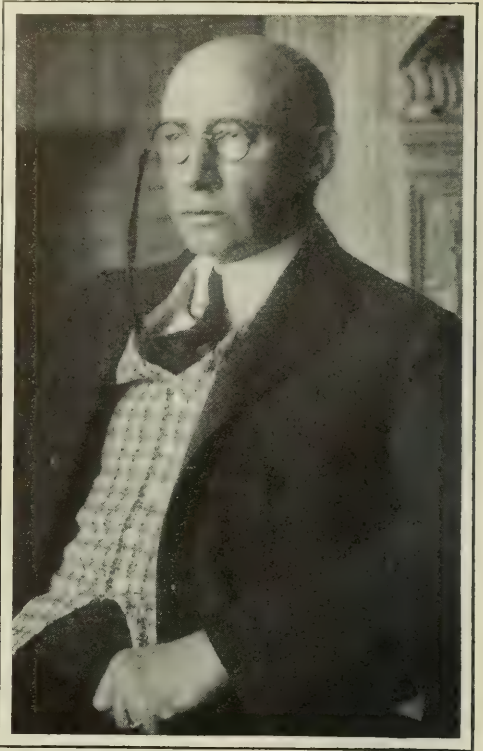
#### NATURE UNITES WITH ART IN THE COLOR SCHEME

Nor is the color scheme confined entirely to pigments and colored lights. The brilliant flora of California has been called in to assist. Each week a new transplanting of blossoming shrubs will decorate the sunken gardens and plazas and flank the walls of the long palaces, harmonizing with their tinted façades.

Gorgeous pageants will be enacted in the "Court of Abundance," in front of Mr. Mullgardt's scintillating tower and fountain stairway, and then, with borders of palms and flowers, a festival aspect will be achieved that will fully vindicate the designers of the Exposition.

The Board of Architects, with Willis Polk at their head, deserve especial credit for the sound judgment shown in the general layout of the grounds and buildings; without which logical project, pretty façades and handsome statuary would have resulted only in confused triviality.

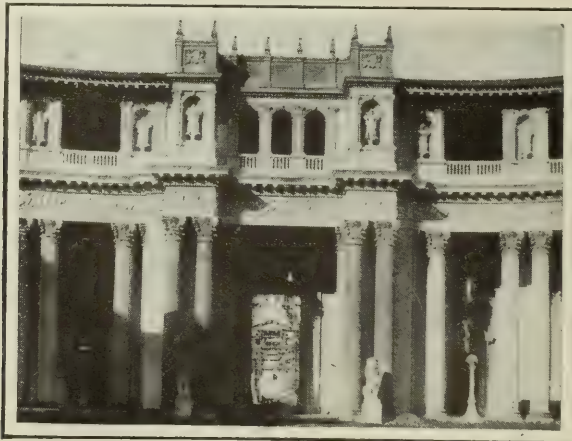
So it is, that, while the Centennial started the ball rolling and taught the worth of *some kind* of an exposition as of educational value; and Chicago, the Great White City, taught the value of unity and harmony; and Buffalo taught the value of one dominating feature,

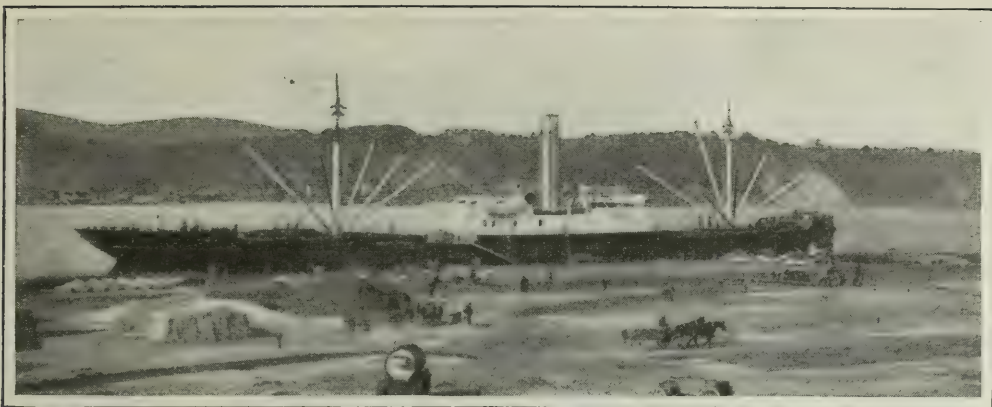


JULES GUÉRIN, DIRECTOR OF COLOR AND DECORATION

—the Howard Tower;—and Jamestown taught the value of unity in style and the value of the Colonial as an American style; San Francisco will teach the great value of subdued "all-over" color.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> All the illustrations of this article are copyrighted, 1915, by the Panama-Pacific International Exposition.





SHIP THAT BROUGHT LUMBER FROM OREGON TO POUGHKEEPSIE-ON-HUDSON, VIA PANAMA, WITHOUT BREAKING BULK

# NOW THAT PANAMA HAS OPENED—WHAT?

BY A. C. LAUT

**I**F you walk through the American-Hawaiian big fifteen-acre dock warehouse, at the Bush Terminal in Brooklyn, you will see huge cargoes of freight being loaded and unloaded that mark a new era in American transportation. They pretty nearly mark, for the United States, what Hamburg and the Elbe stand for to Germany,—the coördination of river and rail, of land and water transportation.

You see Wabash cars, Illinois Central cars, Michigan Southern cars, lined up beside steamers, transferring freight from the Middle West to steamers bound for the Pacific Coast. There is motor machinery billed from Detroit to Seattle. There are Pittsburgh steel plates billed for California. There are Chicago galvanized sheets billed for San Diego. Yet more,—please note and think what it means,—there are Indianapolis boxes billed for Seattle. There are St. Louis leathers and Kansas City corn exports and St. Paul flour billed to coast points all the way from Los Angeles to Tacoma.

## MIDDLE-WESTERN FREIGHT TO PACIFIC COAST VIA ATLANTIC

What does this mean? It means that Middle West freight is taking to water to go round to the Pacific Coast. It means that freight as far from the Atlantic seaboard as St. Paul is taking to water to go round through Panama to reach Mr. Hill's own

peculiar territory on the Pacific Coast. It means that it is cheaper for this freight to come a third the way across the continent east by rail and then to go by water 2000 miles down to Panama and 3000 miles up the Pacific Coast than it is for this freight to go two-thirds the way across the continent west by rail.

For ten years everybody predicted what would happen when Panama opened. There were predictions all the way from the pessimist's hopes that lily-pads would grow in the canal to the optimist's prophecies that the big ditch would transform Uncle Sam into something as amphibious as a frog. What has really happened, and is happening more and more every day, discounts every prediction.

## PACIFIC COAST LUMBER FOR HUDSON RIVER POINTS

The record of inbound cargoes is still more unexpected. There are ten carloads of California melons. There are ten car-lots of Pacific Coast celery. At a period when the war and depression in Canada and the reaction from a general period of overcutting had thrown Pacific Coast lumber a drug on an overglutted market, the American-Hawaiian Line, in November, brought a shipload of lumber through Panama, and, without breaking bulk, through New York harbor up the Hudson as far as Poughkeepsie, where a



Washington lumber firm has just expended \$300,000 on a new plant. For the first time in the history of the United States, river and canal and ocean traffic have coördinated in the cheapest freights ever enjoyed by the shipper.

These inbound shipments are as significant as the outbound. They mean more than cheaper lumber to the buyer. If Pacific Coast lumber can be brought direct inland on river and canal without breaking bulk at the Atlantic seaports, it means that the Atlantic seaports are going to lose a certain proportion of their traffic unless they can reduce terminal charges to such a level that breaking bulk will not add to the buyer's price.

#### TO EUROPE WITHOUT BREAKING BULK

Go a little deeper! Formerly Pacific Coast products for European markets were transhipped at Atlantic harbors from rail to sea. What is to hinder these products going direct to Europe without breaking bulk at Atlantic ports? What is to hinder Mississippi products, Pittsburgh manufactures, the Great Lakes exports, by river and canal and sea, reaching Europe without breaking bulk?

Long ago Quebec was the great seaport of Canada. Masts rocked at anchor like a forest beneath the citadel. Came a day when Montreal improved the navigation of the St. Lawrence and perfected cheap terminals. Commerce passed on up the river and left the ancient city stranded. What is to hinder a similar loss to Atlantic ports? Only one thing,—which Irving T. Bush has pointed out to the New York Chamber of Commerce,—such a perfection of terminals as will compel and hold commerce at the Atlantic seaports; such easy handling as will draw industries down to the sea.

There are commodities,—coffee, for instance,—that land in New York and are shipped a thousand miles inland to be manufactured. The same product is then shipped a thousand miles back to New York to be sold. This is a needless haul of two thousand miles, solely because the Atlantic seaboard has lacked the enterprise to attract



HOPS IN BALES FROM PACIFIC COAST RECEIVED AT NEW YORK

manufacturers to ocean front. Attraction to ocean front means water and rail in touch without trucking; deep water; ample piers; ample and covered docks; warehouses for storage; railroads alongside; manufacturing and selling plants in touch with water front. It may be added, there are only three American examples of such

perfect combinations on water front in the United States,—the Bush Terminals, Brooklyn; the City Terminals, New Orleans; and the City Terminals, in San Francisco. When Los Angeles harbor plans have been developed, that city will have such a combination. If the Atlantic seaports would hold their supremacy in the revolution wrought to water transportation by Panama, they must do what Hamburg has done,—work out such harmony between rail and water that trade will save money centering at these ports.

#### AMERICAN MARKETS FOR SIBERIAN PRODUCTS

Several world factors utterly unforeseen have rendered the opening of Panama peculiarly opportune. Just when Suez is menaced, Panama is available. Just when Siberia begins enormous shipments of agricultural products over the Trans-Siberian Railroad, war cuts off the western outlet of that road to world markets, and steamship lines from Vladivostok through Panama place Siberian products on American markets for distribution to the world.

This means that the United States markets may become to the world what Liverpool is in wheat, what Amsterdam is in tobacco, what Bremen is in cotton, what London is in wool,—distributing centers for the world. The trend this way has already begun. For the first time, Russian dairy products reach Europe by Panama and New York. When the war is over will this flow of commerce not go back to old channels? Not if the American business man knows why. Commerce may be a trickle at first. By and by it is a river that cuts its own course.

Just when the United States is entering on an export era, war disables every other great exporting nation in the world. Just when war absorbs all the other merchant fleets of the world, the new American Ship Registry Law permits neutral vessels and interned ships to come under the American flag. Just when a Mexican revolution has disabled the Tehuantepec route, Panama takes over the freight driven from that disturbed peninsula.

All this explains why the Panama Canal opens to an ample fleet both of coastwise and foreign goers. This is exactly contrary to universal expectation at the time when the Panama bill excluded railroad-owned ships from the Canal.

#### FLEETS FOR THE PANAMA TRADE

Three ships will run from Boston. Several Pacific Coast lumber concerns are putting on their own big freighters. The war having largely cut South America and Asia off from British and German service, strong American exporting firms have put on ships through Panama to the west coast of South America and to China. Luckenbach, Grace & Co., Norton, Steel, and the American-Hawaiian are some of these lines.

The American-Hawaiian is the best example of a big fleet built up without subsidy, without kiting, conservatively based on the simple fact that success in ocean traffic depends solely on one thing,—return cargoes.

It became apparent, when the Spanish War broke out, that there would be great cargoes of sugar. It also became apparent that the new railroad across Tehuantepec would require a steamship service east and west. These two facts, together with the vital factor that the line was launched by a family successful in the clipper trade for a century,—the Dearbornes,—gave the American-Hawaiian such a probability of success that it marketed its securities; and in an era when every venture was literally ballooned with bonds up to full capital value the American-Hawaiian issued stocks only to half the value of its capital; and all its bonds have since been retired by proceeds from ship earnings. Its terminals alone to-day ex-



AMERICAN-HAWAIIAN STEAMSHIPS AT BUSH TERMINAL, PORT OF NEW YORK  
(Part of the fleet of 26 ships built for Panama trade)

ceed in cash outlay its capital; and its steamship valuation is four times its capital.

Beginning thus conservatively, the American-Hawaiian launched out bravely in 1900 with four steamers. By 1906 it had nine steamers; by 1915, it has twenty-six; and it pays into the American Treasury \$100,000 a month in Panama tolls. Across Tehuantepec, the average freight rate from Atlantic to Pacific used to be 55 to 75 cents a hundred-weight; and the time from 40 to 50 days from New York to 'Frisco. Across Panama, the average is 25 cents, and the time about 24 to 30 days. One steamer is fitted for passengers. On others \$300,000 has been expended on refrigeration for export fruits. All but four of the twenty-six steamers are oil burners; three barrels of oil at 75 cents equal one ton of coal at \$6; and oil requires two-thirds fewer engine hands. With a record such as this in only fifteen years, it is fatuous to say that the United States cannot build up a Merchant Marine of her own.

Now that Panama has opened,—What?

New fleets under the American flag.

Pacific Coast products on Eastern markets at low freight.

Middle West exports on the Pacific Coast by water.

A new era in Asiatic commerce through American channels.

American ships picking up South American commerce abandoned by German and British lines.

One need only look at this list to realize that Panama has opened a new era.





THE BOMBARDMENT OF SOISSONS

# HALF A YEAR OF WORLD WAR

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

[The following article in the series begun by Mr. Simonds in our October number gives a survey of the sixth month of the great war. Our readers are referred to the maps which were printed in connection with Mr. Simonds' article in our January number, pages 51 and 58.—THE EDITOR.]

SIX months after the outbreak of the world war the outstanding fact was that peace seemed as distant, almost more distant than it did in September. Yet if the close of the conflict remained still a subject for speculation, it was now plain that the issue had been determined in September and that all that had happened since the Battle of the Marne had in fact been the natural consequence of one more decisive battle of the world. On fields and hills but little distant from the plain where Roman civilization turned back Attila, the German bid for world supremacy, the Kaiser's chance to play Napoleon were abolished.

In the opening month of the war there was a chance; a real chance that Germany might destroy France before Russia was up, force Russia to make terms before England was ready and then, master of the Continent as the France of Napoleon, renew the duel with the British Empire that France had abandoned precisely a century before. After

the Battle of the Marne the chance had vanished. Week by week, month by month, Russian, British, French military power developed, increased. On January 20, Germany held less of France than on September 1; instead of a 100,000 British troops, the advance guard of a fresh million were already in Flanders; French troops were breaking out in Alsace.

In the period between the Battle of the Marne and January, 1915, Germany had made three great campaigns. On the Yser the very flower of her troops had gone down under the eyes of the Kaiser in a frantic attempt to gain the French coast cities, to grasp the eastern shore of the Straits of Dover, to get within reach of the hated Englishman's home. A first attempt to seize Warsaw, to crush Russia, France being indestructible, had failed before the Polish capital. A second offensive into Poland, after great victories and terrible losses had come to a halt before the Bzura.

Six months after war had begun Germany was still faced by three great nations, their military force wholly unshaken, their armies still gaining in numbers, their deficiencies in artillery, in machinery all but made good. Such advantage as her preparedness had given her, the credit balance in her favor, was now exhausted.

In the same period her Austrian ally had three times been beaten almost to her knees by Russian victories, was now facing an invasion across the Carpathians into Hungary. Twice, too, the Hapsburg Emperor had seen splendid armies ignominiously routed, destroyed by the hated Serbs, who in their turn were preparing to flow over the Danube into Hungary.

Around the world the German hopes had equally proven vain. The Turk had suffered disaster, the Holy War had fallen to empty nothing, the South African revolution had flickered out as an abortive revolt, with no other permanent consequence than to insure the loss of German Southwest Africa. In Asia her colony had disappeared into Japanese hands, in the Pacific her islands were lost irrevocably, in Africa her remaining colonies were being slowly but steadily consumed by her enemies as one eats an artichoke, leaf by leaf.

To balance this, Germans could still point to conquered lands and provinces. In Poland, in Flanders, in Champagne her lines held, her counter-attacks regained lost trenches regularly. In Alsace, along the Aisne, in Artois and Belgium, Anglo-French attacks, ambitious offensive, were speedily beaten down. East and west Germany was still a match for her enemies, but east and west the moment for victory had passed, irrevocably passed, east and west German operations more and more tended toward the defensive. What Gettysburg had been to the South, the Marne was now proving to have been to Germany. Nowhere in January was there the slightest sign of new promise for German victory and what was true in January had been true in the earlier months.

Half a year of war had given history one more decisive battle, for Europe conceivably the greatest in permanent meaning since Waterloo. In that battle it had been decided that Europe should still be European and not Prussian. At the Marne, France had saved herself and Europe; after the Marne the problem was how long it would take Europe to conquer Germany, and in January it was unmistakable that as yet Europe had made no progress.

## II. PROSPECTS OF PEACE

It was natural then, in the sixth month, the war having fallen to a complete deadlock in Poland as in Champagne, that the whole world should consider the possibility of peace, weigh the prospects of ending battles, murderous but indecisive, by an arrangement honorable to all. Yet, this done, it was only less plain than the fact that there could be no immediate military decision, that any other solution was undiscoverable.

The reason was simple. For France, who had suffered most of the Allies, that is of the greater nations, peace without Alsace was unthinkable. More than this, for forty years the French people had lived under the shadow of German attack. Peace now restored it would still be a menace; but, France, having done her part and Russia and England now coming on the field in new strength, the hour of French peril was passed. Could her allies, with her own help crush Germany completely, there would be for France the promise of at least a generation of security, time to build up her great colonial empire, organize her native armies, thus restore the balance between her population and Germany's. For France, the real promise for peace was found in war.

As for Russia, all her Czars had dreamed of for centuries was in sight, Constantinople, the destruction of Turkey, of Austria, with the resulting Russian hegemony over all the Slavs, over the Balkans, the mastery of the Continent, all these were assured if Germany could be crushed, all these were in jeopardy if Germany should escape now by premature peace. England and France were now fighting to make the Czar master in the Near East, such aid could hardly be had again, but, Germany crushed, who could veto Russia's will in Europe, in Asia Minor, at the Golden Horn and on the Baltic?

For England peace that spared the German fleet, restored those German colonies, which had been used as the bases for German attacks and intrigue in South Africa, in East Africa, would be intolerable. Nor could Britain sheathe her sword until German supremacy in Islam, in Constantinople, which had struck at King George's millions of Mohammedan subjects in India and Egypt, had been ended. Finally the prolongation of the war extended the period of prostration of her only rival in the commerce of the world. Every casualty list of the Germans in battle with the French or Russians was a victory for England, since it destroyed



more of the artisans, the skilled workmen of German industry. Every day the war continued Liverpool and Glasgow gained new advantages over Hamburg and Bremen, British ships extended the area of conquest, while German ships lay idle in New York and Lisbon, or in home ports.

For all her foes, the crushing of Germany was patently more profitable than peace on any but their own terms. For Germany, still the conqueror in Belgium, in northern France, in western Poland, still unbeaten in the field, indeed superior in achievement, it was impossible to lay down her arms, surrender her provinces, her fleet, her great hopes, her splendid dreams, her legitimate rights in some cases, in advance of actual defeat. For her, too, peace on any terms obtainable was certain to be expensive beyond anything but the consequences of complete disaster.

Austria, Belgium, Serbia might long for peace on any reasonable terms, but England, France, Russia, they, at last had Germany within their power, not immediately, but ultimately. In all respects, January conditions resembled the situation when Europe marched against Napoleon still unconquered in 1813, but at last conquerable. So, six months after the first declaration of war, the prospect of peace was slight, a war not of strategy but attrition, a war such as Grant waged against the Confederacy from the Rapidan to Appomattox seemed ineluctable.

### III. WAR BY ATTRITION

Since a war of attrition seemed inevitable, the natural inquiry was in January: How long will it take to reach exhaustion? Again, since it was now clear that Austrian resources were fast failing and new drafts were being made upon German armies to defend Hungary as well as Cracow, the real problem became: How long can Germany continue to meet France, Russia and England with equal or sufficient numbers to prolong the war?

Early in the war Lord Kitchener had said that the struggle might last three years. What seemed a mere rough estimate becomes far more significant examined by the few statistics yet available, which show the wastage of war.

Thus it seems fair to estimate that Germany has now in the field 3,000,000 men, France 2,000,000, Austria 1,000,000, Russia 3,000,000. England at no distant date will have 1,000,000 on the Continent. Serbia and

Belgium may be reckoned to have 250,000.

Now as far as Russia is concerned her supply of men is for any ordinary calculation inexhaustible. That she can keep her European force at 3,000,000 for three years, despite battle losses is hardly debatable. As to England, her ability to maintain an army of 1,000,000 on the Continent indefinitely and despite losses is equally to be accepted. It is different with France. Her available military population may be reckoned at 4,000,000. Of this she has already lost 1,000,000 by death, capture, disease or wounds. Half of this number may be reckoned as permanently lost. At this rate, France will be reduced at the opening of the third year of war to 2,000,000. With her allies she will then have 6,000,000 men. But her losses in this year cannot be made good, save by the new class coming to the colors in 1917 and levies from her colonies.

Now Germany may be reckoned to have had 6,000,000 men available for service in July, 1914; 600,000 more will be supplied by the combined classes of 1916 and 1917. German losses in the first six months may be estimated at 1,800,000. At this rate, 1,800,000 will be removed permanently from the German lines in each of the first two years of war. Thus, at the opening of the third, Germany will still have 3,000,000 men to draw on. But her losses thereafter will be definitive, because she will have exhausted her reserve. As to Austria, she has lost more than 1,000,000 already in her many disasters. She may still have 1,000,000 in the field, but a year hence, two years hence, she can hope for no more and her resources, too, will be completely exhausted.

Thus, as the third year of the war opens not more than 4,000,000 Austro-Germans, the last line, will confront 6,000,000 Russians, British, and French, helped by some hundreds of thousands of Slavs and Belgians, behind whom will stand Russian and British reserves of at least 4,000,000. This means, with every discount for the roughness of the estimate, that sometime in the third year, while Russia and Britain are still able to keep their armies at their present point, Austro-German forces will begin to decline rapidly and a tremendous advantage of numbers will belong to the enemies of Germany. Such is the statement of what may be called the mathematics of murder.

For Americans it will be interesting to recall that this is precisely what happened to the South in the third year of the Civil War. Up to this time the South had been able to

meet invasion and halt it with numbers unequal to their opponents but equal to their task. But in 1864 the "seedcorn of the Confederacy," as Jefferson Davis termed the young men, had been ground up and the end came quickly thereafter.

#### IV. NEW FACTORS

Since every indication of battlefield and military statistics alike pointed toward a three years' war in January, it was inevitable that the attention of the world should turn to the only possible influence which might shorten the period of world suffering, that which might be exerted by neutral nations, if they should enter the war. Of these nations, Rumania and Italy were the most interesting because it was becoming plain that self-interest and popular sentiment in each was drawing them nearer to the battle lines.

For Rumania the case was unmistakable. In Bukovina and Transylvania 2,500,000 Rumanians suffered under the tyranny of Austrian or Magyar masters. These provinces were contiguous to Rumania, were indeed "lost provinces" of the Rumanian world. Austrian disaster had brought Russian troops into Bukovina and to the marches of Transylvania. Russian diplomacy held them out as prospective bribes to Rumania, but if Rumania remained neutral, the chance might be lost, Bukovina annexed by Russia, Transylvania left to the Hungarians. Before she could strike with complete safety Rumania had to settle with her Bulgarian neighbor whose vineyard she had raided in the Second Balkan War, but in January this detail seemed arranged.

As for Italy, her stake was even larger. Trieste and the Trentino are peopled by Italians. Along the Dalmatian coast the ruins of Venetian and Roman empire are thickly strewn and the coast towns bear Italian names and have Italian populations. To take these provinces from Austria has long been the dream of Italian statesmen. Now, at last, the chance had come.

But there were other considerations. Should Italy remain neutral, Dalmatia might go entire to the New Serbia, the whole Adriatic coast from Istria to Cattaro, with its hinterland populated by Slovenes, Croats, Servians might be united in a new southern Slav state, nearly as large as Italy, henceforth a rival on the Adriatic, a rival supported by Russia. Or the victorious alliance, having conquered Germany and

seized Austrian lands, might conclude to keep the bulk of Austria intact, lest the northern half fall to Germany, and Italy would lose, might even find the victors her rivals in the Mediterranean and the Near East inviting her to evacuate Rhodes, yield to Greece and Servia Valona, Durazzo, the Albanian regions on which Italian troops were already taking root.

In the great day of liquidation Italy might find herself isolated, friendless, unless she shared in the struggle. Thus in January, Italy, too, seemed about to join the enemies of Germany, when the great earthquake came, bringing losses as terrible as battle and for the moment prostrating the nation.

Yet for Rumania, for Italy, the fact remained that profit in the Great War for them was discoverable only through the defeat of Austria, realizable only if they participated in the struggle.

Together Italy and Rumania could put 1,000,000 troops in the field, fully equipped, trained. Behind them would stand adequate reserves to maintain these armies at full strength. With Servian troops they could be reckoned upon to occupy all of Austrian resources and leave Russia free to concentrate against Germany. The Italian fleet would bring new aid to the Allied ships holding the Suez Canal, bombarding the Dardanelles, blockading the Austrian war-ships in Pola and Cattaro.

For Austria, for Germany, the entrance of these two fresh antagonists would be a final sign that the war had been lost, might bring them to surrender in advance of exhaustion, might compel Austria to make a separate peace and leave Germany to her fate. Here in January was the single hint of early peace, peace through more war, peace predicated on new disasters to the two Kaisers and their Turkish ally, but recently the foe of Italy and still the menace to Italian as well as British empire in Africa.

#### V. IN POLAND

East and west alike the military operations of January were without real results. In France a new Allied offensive was beaten down at its very inception and a German gain on the Aisne emphasized the fact that Germany was still able to hold her conquered provinces in France and Belgium. In the East the German drive for Warsaw came to a dead stop at the Bzura and the subsequent defeat of the Austrians in Galicia demonstrated that it had failed in its indirect



as well as its direct purpose. So far as real advantage was discoverable in the January round it lay with the Allies, not in their campaigns against Germany, but in the Russian operations against Germany's two allies, Turkey and Austria, for both of whom the month was disastrous.

Taking up the Polish campaign first, it will be recalled that in this magazine for last month I described the advance of the Germans from Thorn, their victory at Lodz, their renewed effort to push forward along the railroads to Warsaw. To capture Warsaw meant to lay hands on the most important road and railroad center in western Russia, to seize the west bank of the Vistula and make this river the military frontier of the German army, thus holding Russian armies more than a hundred miles from Silesia and Posen, it meant to take up a position many times more advantageous than that along the Aisne and insure the eastern marches of Germany against invasion. Finally, since in the first advance upon Warsaw, the Russians had been compelled to retire from all western Galicia to the San, give over their thrust into Hungary and their advance upon Cracow, the Germans might hope that the new invasion would prove equally useful to their ally.

In the closing days of December the German advance continued and under pressure the whole Russian line went back. Lowicz, Skierniewice, the Breslau, Frankfurt and Thorn railroads west of these cities, were surrendered and the Russian army at last took root behind the Bzura, which enters the Warsaw north of Socharew and some twenty odd miles west of Warsaw. At the same time the Russian armies, which had been approaching Cracow from the north, moving along the Ivangorod-Cracow railway, in their turn retreated eastward, until they stood behind the Nida, which enters the Vistula north of Tarnow.

In their new positions the Russians occupied a line resembling the string of a mighty bow, formed by the Vistula behind them, a string perhaps 150 miles long. At the north, where the main Russian and German armies faced each other, the Bzura, flanked by long stretches of morasses, of swamps, offered defensive advantages surpassing those of the Yser in Flanders. To the south the Nida was a considerable military obstacle. Between these two rivers, the tableland dividing their watersheds was cut by the Pilica River flowing east to the Vistula and thus perpendicular to the Russian front.

Since the Russian flanks rested upon the Vistula and the wings were covered by the Bzura and Nida rivers the center alone seemed vulnerable. Yet at the outset the German assault rolled up against the Bzura position, huge losses to the assailants were reported by the Russians, who dug themselves into the ground as the French and British had in Flanders. A mild winter turning the Bzura marshes into endless swamps served to increase the German difficulties. Napoleon had been ruined by an early Russian winter, a century before, but now General January, blowing mild, sending rains, not frosts and snow, paralyzed the transport of heavy German artillery.

Little by little it became clear that the German invasion had again been halted. Once more Russia had succeeded in bringing up reserves in time to offset the advantage Germany derived from strategic railways. By mid-January the German attack had shifted from the Bzura to the Pilica, that is from the Russian right to the Russian center. Meantime the Russian left on the Vistula severely defeated an Austrian army moving east from Cracow and began to attempt to pass the Nida, moving west.

In sum, the January fighting in Poland had developed into a complete deadlock. By her new invasion of Poland, Germany had cleared her own frontiers, she had rolled the Russians back three-quarters of the way to Warsaw, but she had not destroyed their armies, she had not taken Warsaw, she seemed no longer to have any real chance of taking it, she had not even served her ally in Galicia materially, since new disaster had come to Austria at the very moment when German advance to Warsaw was going forward most formidably.

## VI. ANOTHER AUSTRIAN DISASTER

At the moment when von Hindenburg had launched his second drive against Warsaw Russian troops were on two sides of Cracow and were reaching toward the south to cut it off and surround it. Save for Cracow, with its environs, and Przemyśl, now closely invested, all Galicia was in Russian hands and Russian troops were across the Carpathians in Hungary and on the frontiers of Bukovina.

Coincident with the German advance the Austrians undertook a most ambitious operation to clear their own territories. While an Austro-German army moved east from Cracow toward the Nida, forming the right



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

GERMAN OFFICERS RECEIVING THE REPORT OF A CAVALRY SCOUT AT A FIELD STATION NEAR WARSAW



A ROAD IN THE FIGHTING ZONE OF THE RUSSO-AUSTRIAN BORDERLAND



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

AN AUSTRIAN FIELD TELEPHONE, CONCEALED UNDERGROUND IN GALICIA, AND DUG UP FOR USE BY AUSTRIAN SCOUTS AFTER THE RUSSIAN ARMIES HAD PASSED OVER IT



wing of the German army in Poland, two other armies, one coming north through the westernmost passes of the Carpathians, the other moving east from Cracow along the eastern foothills of the Carpathians, were directed at the extreme left of the Russians, with the design to strike the Russian flank in front and rear at the same moment, somewhat as the two Prussian armies had arrived on the field of Sadowa in 1866. Finally it was arranged that the Przemyśl garrison should take the field and operate in the rear of the whole Russian front in the Galician field of operations.

Unfortunately for the Austrians the design, which if realizable would have meant complete disaster to the Russians in Galicia, was beyond their power. Instead of waiting for the Austrians to carry out their plans, the Russians before Cracow fell back behind the Donajec at Tarnow, detached all available reserves from this front and sent them south to meet the Austrians coming north across the Carpathians, reinforced by the troops lately drawn from Servia, with such fatal consequences.

Standing on the defensive toward Cracow, the Russians promptly defeated the Austrian army coming north from Hungary, drove it back across the southern railway line which follows the Carpathians from Silesia to Rumania, beat down a sortie from Przemyśl, which was made too soon to co-ordinate with the other Austrian movements. Finally, having disposed of two of the three hostile moves, the Russians again threw their forces back across the Donajec and began to advance west toward Cracow again.

For Austria this latest of her disasters was terribly embarrassing. An invasion of Hungary now seemed inevitable. Hungarian insistence upon the defense of this frontier promptly produced the resignation of Count von Berchtold, Foreign Minister, who still favored a campaign to recover lost laurels in Servia. German troops, too, had to be brought to Hungary to meet the Russians, slowly but steadily working their way through the snow-filled passes toward the Hungarian Plain.

But if the fresh defeat brought internal difficulties and unrest in the Hapsburg Empire its effect upon external political relations was still more considerable and unfavorable. The Austrian advance into Galicia having been turned back, Russian troops were sent back into Bukovina, which had been won and lost before by Russia. This time the conquest was complete and Russian

troops approached the Borgo Pass leading into Transylvania.

For Rumania this new Russian triumph posed a grave problem. Half of Bukovina, all of Transylvania belongs racially and linguistically to Rumania. In them live 2,500,000 people speaking the Roman tongue of the East. To possess these provinces had long been the dream of Rumania's patriots. Both were now to be had by joining Russia against Austria. Victorious or defeated, Russia would hardly consent to see them Rumanian unless Rumania paid her share of the cost of conquest. Thus the new Austrian defeat revived the talk of immediate Rumanian intervention, and in late January, while Russia's Rumanian troops from Bessarabia were fraternizing with the Rumanian-speaking populations in Bukovina, the entrance of Rumania seemed likely to be prompt.

For the rest, Austrian troops, strengthened by Germans, were still in late January holding the Russians back from Cracow along the Nida and the Donajec, the Russian wave had not yet cleared the Carpathians in its rush upon Hungary, the Servian invasion of Hungary had not yet begun, but Austrian prestige and fortunes were at the lowest ebb in their recent history, the European press buzzed with reports that Austria was about to seek separate peace. Finally, Italy, too, began to give signs of again challenging her secular enemy, signs which seemed only temporarily obliterated by the terrible earthquake. As January closed there was a widespread belief that Austria might be capable of one more great effort, but more than that seemed beyond her power. First of all the great nations, the Hapsburg Empire seemed approaching the end of her resources for war-making.

## VII. TURKEY ALSO FAILS

On the value of Turkey in a general war German soldiers and statesmen have long been agreed. In a war with England as one of the enemies of Germany the mission of the Sultan was to be religious as well as military. Through the medium of the Holy War he was to rouse the millions of Mohammedan subjects of King George in India. Religious and military influence alike were to make British position in Egypt untenable, imperil the Suez Canal, spread religious unrest across the Sahara to French North Africa.

At the opening of the Great War there

was plain evidence that Turkey would come in on Germany's side. Her leaders were angry with Great Britain for taking over the dreadnoughts building for Turkey in England, the ships on which Turkey had relied to regain her Egean Islands from Greece. An alliance between Russia and Great Britain was an immediate menace to Osmanli power on the Golden Horn. Russia and England, as well as France, had openly supported the Balkan Alliance against the Sultan.

But the first Austrian defeats cooled Turkish ardor. What seemed sure in August became doubtful again in September. But October came and Germany's great drives at Warsaw and Calais being in full swing, the agents of the Kaiser in Turkey, Enver Pasha, the powerful leader, whose sympathy with Germany was complete, succeeded in enlisting Turkey. This they did by the simple but astonishing device of sending the two German ships, the *Goeben* and the *Breslau*, which had taken refuge in the Golden Horn, out into the Black Sea to bombard the Russian coasts. As a result Turkey was at war with Russia and Russia's allies before the Turkish public, or many of the Turkish statesmen, knew of the fact. To the end this policy was opposed by some of the ablest of Turks.

Once in the war it was to be expected that Turkey would make her first effort to regain her lost province of Egypt; the Khedive, then in Constantinople, volunteered to lead the army of liberation. The Holy War preached against all infidels not allies or friends of the Turk was to rouse the Egyptians. But thanks to the delay of Turkey in coming in, Egypt was now garrisoned by Australians, by British territorials, by "hot-weather" troops from India. British and French warships patrolled the Canal. To take Egypt promised to be a difficult job, complicated by the fact that Italy, newly master in Tripoli, looked with plain disapproval upon the prospect of a Turkish neighbor.

Whatever the advantages of the Egyptian campaign, however, the fact that German influence was in the saddle and German necessities unmistakable led the Turks to other operations. For Germany, her Austrian ally slowly sinking under Russian attack, it was imperative that a Turkish attack be directed against Russia to divert Russian troops from Galicia and Poland. Accordingly, several Turkish army corps were sent east from Ezerum toward Kars, into the Caucasian

region inside of Russian frontiers and south and east of Batum and Trebizond.

In a difficult mountain region, suffering from insufficient equipment, from the rigors of a terrible winter, the Turkish operation was temporarily successful, but presently met with complete disaster, and one whole army corps, the Ninth, with its officers, including many Germans, was captured; two more, the Tenth and Eleventh, endeavoring to cover the retreat, met with a similar disaster a few days later at Olti, on the Turkish frontier. Hardly less than 100,000 troops had thus been sacrificed to German, not Turkish, needs. Instead of victories, there was now added a new disaster to stand with Lule Burgas and Kumanovo.

For German influence in Turkey this defeat was a terrible shock, just beginning to be felt as these lines are written, and the news is at last known in Stamboul. A brilliant but relatively insignificant foray into Persia, the clearing out of Russian garrisons at Tabriz, was but a slight counterbalance to the loss of three army corps, to the prospect of the immediate loss of Ezerum and the rest of Armenia. At the same time British troops were moving north along the Euphrates from Busra, Anglo-French warships were menacing the Dardanelles. On all sides Turkish ruin seemed threatening, and the Turkish Government was reported to be planning to withdraw to the fortress of Adrianople, to escape the wrath of the Constantinople populace.

That German influence, backed by German warships, would still hold on for a time in Turkey seemed possible. But the Caucasian defeat had immediately checked the area of Turkish usefulness to Germany, and it had not interrupted the despatch of Russian masses to Galicia or Poland. Moreover, Italian apprehension, roused by Turkish purposes in the Near East, had provoked the Hodeida incident, which brought Italy and Turkey within two steps of war. Like Austria, Turkey had failed Germany in her hour of greatest need.

## VIII. STILL DEADLOCK IN THE WEST

In January the Anglo-French armies in France made three efforts to break the German hold upon the territory of the Republic. All three were marked by small gains, in Alsace, west of the Argonne, in Champagne, and along the line from Roye to Lille, and all three gains were less considerable than



the single considerable German offensive which in the third week of the month drove the French south of the Aisne, between Soissons and Craonne.

The Alsatian offensive, the most ambitious of French projects, was described in this magazine last month. In early January the French columns flowing down the narrow Vosges valley of the Thur passed Thann, captured the village of Steinbach at the point where the Thur enters the Alsatian Plain, lost and regained the village (it changed hands six times), approached the town of Cernay, the first in the plain, and there were halted, thrown back.

From Steinbach the French could see Muelhausen, ten miles away, but fresh German forces arrived to stay the offensive. Similarly another advance eastward from Belfort was brought to a standstill before Altkirch. The hardest fighting in the West in January took place along this front, but as January closed the French were still unable to debouch into the plain from the Vosges or advance over the plain from Belfort.

In Champagne four months of effort had failed to shake the German hold on the hills east of Rheims, which commanded the city and had been occupied by French forts defending the city before the war. These the Germans transformed into veritable strongholds, and from them they bombarded Rheims, whenever the French were too pressing on their front. Accordingly the French, unable to take the forts, sought to drive the Germans from them by pushing northeast of Rheims and west of the Argonne. Here, just north of the Chalons-Verdun railroad, on the Champagne Plain, a desperate French offensive took several towns familiar in all battle reports, but these advances were but slight and were gradually beaten down, while just to the east the Germans continued to hold their ground before Verdun and in the St. Mihiel salient.

About Arras and to the north in the corner of Belgium, still unoccupied by the Germans, the French and British tried to push east, to win La Bassée, the key to much of the surrounding territory, to advance on Lille and along the sand dunes toward Ostend. Everywhere some ground was won, some of the gain lost, but all fighting was of the siege character. It was advance and retreat by trenches; the shovel, and not the sabre, was the weapon. Nor could the Allies comfort themselves with the reflection that great sacrifices of life in proportion to the

ground gained had disclosed any hopeful German weakness.

On the contrary, a French operation along the first hills north of the Aisne, and just east of Soissons, after a brief period of prosperity, was halted, turned back, driven first to its starting-place and then across the flooded Aisne. The ground lost here had been won by the British in the second week in September, and in the third week of January the Germans were able, despite all the demands upon them from all quarters, to mass sufficient men to win this triumph under the eyes of the Kaiser himself.

Berlin talked of Gravelotte in connection with this victory. The French explained that the river floods had carried away bridges and prevented reinforcing their troops and thus made retreat inevitable. Conceivably the truth lay half-way between. But the fact was that the French had been thrown back, that after six months the combined military resources of France and England, with Belgium and Indian contingents, were not adequate to begin the drive of German troops from France. Beside this fact all else was of minor import. Once more Germany had been able to match man with man and hold her lines from Switzerland to the German Ocean.

In some quarters the German success was interpreted as the first step in a new drive toward Paris. Fresh German troops were reported arriving. On the other hand, all reports agreed that the first considerable force of Kitchener's new army was beginning to reach the Continent, the French position south of the Aisne seemed strong, and there was a general disposition to accept the victory of the Germans as an incident in localized fighting, rather than a considerable detail in a new offensive.

Kitchener's grim comment that the war would begin in May found a mournful echo in Allied failure in France. German invasion had been halted in September, but the liberation of France seemed more remote in January than in the happy days of that Autumn month. In the West the honors for January were with the Germans, but of real progress there was none.

### "MARSHAL FEBRUARY" IN COMMAND

In the last week of January two considerable operations, a Russian in the East, a German in the West, divided attention. The Russian operation was directed at that East Prussian frontier which had been success-

fully assailed in August and also along the northern bank of the Vistula toward Thorn. The German operation seemed to be directed at the gap through which the successful offensive had reached the bank of the Aisne east of Soissons, the previous week.

For the Russian movement two possibilities were to be considered. It might be simply an effort to relieve pressure upon the army to the south facing west between the mouth of the Bzura and the Nida, it might be an effort to straighten out the whole Russian battle front from the Baltic to the Carpathians. In Galicia the Russian success had beaten down the salient, which had extended into Russian Poland. Substantially straight from the Carpathians to the Vistula at the mouth of the Bzura the Russian battle line now ran. But north of the Vistula it bent round, following the Vistula west nearly to Plock, then went north to the East Prussian line north of Mława, and crossing the line, followed the Mśurian Lake front to the latitude of Königsberg.

Ever since October the Germans had been able to hold the Mśurian Lake country, but if the Russians could enter Prussia from the south they might outflank the position and compel the Germans to retire on the Allenstein front as they had in August, or turning south along the Vistula near Plock they might undertake to pass the river and reach the rear of von Hindenburg's main force operating at the Bzura. If the movement were directed north and west toward Allenstein its maximum profit might be the evacuation of all Prussia to the Vistula, thus shortening the Russian army and protecting its flank, which would rest upon the Baltic; if it were directed south across the Vistula near Plock, it might compel the retreat from the Bzura and the abandonment of the second German offensive in Poland.

Meantime, far off at the south the Russian advance through Bukovina had reached and passed the Carpathians at Kirilibaba Pass, and by January 20 was reported well inside of the Transylvanian line and approaching the flank of the southernmost of the Austrian forces defending the Hungarian frontier. At the same time the Germans in Poland, on their part, were giving renewed evidence of a determination to push on to Warsaw and by defeating the center of the Russians in Poland, compel the right in East Prussia and the left in the Carpathians to abandon their new efforts.

In France, on the contrary, there was unmistakable evidence that new German con-

centrations were going on. Holland reported the abandonment of the regular railroad service, from Belgium came echoes of the passing of artillery, of new formations. Similar reports had preceded the falling of the October blow along the Yser, the second of the great German efforts.

Where was the new blow to fall? Along the Yser and about Ypres where French, Belgian, British troops had won a few hundred or thousand meters in recent weeks? Along the Aisne between Soissons and Rheims, where the recent fighting had carried the German line farther south than it had been at any time since September 12 west of Rheims? Was it conceivable that the Germans were planning a final desperate effort to come south to Paris, less than seventy miles from the point where the Germans now stood?

It was to be deduced from rumors coming across the battle lines that the Germans were now ready to put in the field new formations, that they were, in fact, clearing their training camps of troops which were now ready to stand in the battle lines, the volunteers so much discussed in Berlin bulletins of early days. It was conceivable that if they took the field before Kitchener's army arrived in France that they might at least push back the allied fronts for some miles. If they were unable to reach Paris or take Verdun, they might still break through the Woëvre, or compel the abandonment of the second invasion of Alsace.

Meantime, all military operations were now being terribly hampered by weather conditions, snowstorms in the Vosges, the Carpathians, in Belgium, everywhere save in Russia, winter seemed now to take firm grip, but in Russia a mild season prevented, while in France severe weather made equally impossible a sustained campaign. Not Joffre or French, von Kluck or von Hindenburg, but Field Marshal February seemed about to take full command.

Once more, as in December, the month closed with a German raid upon England, this time by air, not water. With the King's residence at Sandringham as an objective, half a dozen German aircraft,—not Zeppelins, so later reports had it,—flew over Norfolk sowing bombs and spreading destruction.

But again, as in the Scarborough raid, civilians, not soldiers, suffered,—private, not public, property was destroyed. A wanton burst of savagery provoked wrath, not terror,—left England not fearful, but determined.





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#### RUSSIAN ARTILLERY IN ACTION

(Russian field artillery fire being directed by the officers of the battery in the rear of the firing squads)

# THE RUSSIAN FIGHTING IN POLAND

BY STANLEY WASHBURN

[The following graphic description of actual fighting in Russian Poland was sent from Warsaw and reached us last month, with unexpected promptness in view of the average delays to which European mails are now subjected. Mr. Washburn had spent a number of weeks with the Russian armies, and is a seasoned campaigner, having had experience in the war between Japan and Russia. He is the author of a life of General Nogi, and is an authority upon the Canadian Northwest. He is a son of the late Senator Washburn of Minnesota.—THE EDITOR.]

WHAT I have seen in Poland has been a revelation to me of the armies of New Russia. As regards the organization and efficiency which we who were in Manchuria ten years ago came to know, there is about as much difference between the present military machine that is steadily and surely driving against Germany and that which first crumpled up on the Yalu before the assaults of the Imperial Guards of far-off Nippon as was the difference between the raw recruits that stampeded at the Battle of Bull Run in 1861 and the veterans that received the surrender of Lee at Appomattox four years later.

One who has lived with large armies in the field comes to look first of all at the great business side of the enterprise. The public usually thinks of the soldier as in battle, and an army is usually judged from the spectacular point of view of the field itself. It is true that the battle is the fruit of it all, but it is equally true that the real efficiency of an army is not in charges and counter-charges, but in the great and intricate life and organization that lie behind it. If, as is said, seven-eighths of an iceberg is submerged, and only the smallest portion is seen above the waves,

it is fair to liken an army's life to the berg, except that with an army it is but the smallest fraction of one per cent of its life that is on the battlefield. The action is merely the sudden crystallization of all that has gone before and which for years and years and decades and decades has been quietly, steadily preparing for the few hours on the battlefield that give the test as to whether or not the military house has been built upon a rock or upon the sands. When the storm comes and the wind blows the fabric of an army and a nation survives or perishes according as the foundations are either true and sound or loose and disjointed. So it is that one with the smallest familiarity with an army looks first at the vast, seething life that is going on behind the firing line, for herein he may judge of what to expect on the battlefield itself.

Until I went to Poland I had not during this war been actually in the life of the army itself; of the efficiency of the German army, measured by the terrific blows that it had been striking, we all knew. Of the Russians we knew little, save of their Galician campaign. But now at last from the first day we entered the sphere of active and immedi-



AMMUNITION ON SLEDGES FOLLOWING THE ADVANCED GUN DETACHMENTS OF THE RUSSIAN TROOPS

ate operations we had the chance of forming an opinion as to the soldiers of the Czar,—an opinion which in two days became a conviction, and that was that this army had been completely reorganized in ten years and that it was under full steam with a momentum and efficiency which was almost incredible to those that had seen it ten years ago on the dismal plains of Manchuria.

#### EFFICIENCY OF TRANSPORT

For weeks there have been suggestions in the foreign press that Russia has been moving slowly, but that her slowness was the preparation for sureness is the answer which one reads on the highways and byways of Poland to-day. I have seen the transport and the communications of a huge army in the Far East, but never have I seen or even dreamed of the things that one sees daily on the lines of communications in Poland. One can take an automobile and drive for hours along the beautiful macadam roads of Poland and for a hundred kilometers pass the almost unbroken line of transport, ammunition, and artillery, intermingled with infantry and cavalry, that is moving to the front. The roads are filled for mile after mile with all that goes to make for the execution of war. In many places the advance is made two abreast, and I think it no exaggeration to say that I have seen on one road in forty-eight hours not less than 1000 of the six-horse teams drawing the clanking, jangling caissons loaded with the shrapnel shells for the field artillery. As for the wag-

ons containing the miscellany from which an army sucks its life their numbers must easily run into the tens of thousands.

And between and around and about all are ever the seething throngs of the soldiery themselves,—these quiet, good-natured, gray-coated units of the Czar with their inevitable fixed bayonets, moving forward in brigades, regiments, battalions, and companies. The picture of the road that always lingers in one's mind at night is of this forest of bayonets as a matrix for miles and miles of laboring caissons and creaking transport carts. From the first day that one is on the road one feels absolute confidence in the fact that Russia has two of the great requisites of war,—the organization and the men themselves. The word organization, as I use it, means supplies and the efficient means of transporting them in a regular and orderly manner. Napoleon said that an army was composed of the material factors and of the moral components, and of these the latter was three times as important as the former. With every possible necessity, and with the last word in equipment, an army without morale is a motor-car destitute of gasoline.

#### THE HUMAN FACTOR,—MORALE OF THE TROOPS

There is no question about the Russians to-day. When I first came to Russia I wrote a story from Petrograd in which I mentioned the new spirit of Russia and the willingness with which the troops were going to the war. After having been at the front and



seen hundreds and thousands of the same soldiers on the roads, in the trenches, and in the hospitals I am of the opinion that what I then wrote is absolutely true. None of these pathetic units in the great game wanted the war, and I suppose every one of them prays for its conclusion, but almost without exception they take it philosophically and as a matter of course. Their hardships and their losses, their privations and their wounds, all are accepted as inevitable. The absolute hopelessness which one saw on their faces in Manchuria is not seen in these days. The keynote of their appearance wherever I have seen them in this war is a good-natured cheerfulness and readiness to accept the necessary in a cause the general nature of which most of them understand. The Russian soldier is to me the most philosophical individual in the world. I have seen him in the hospitals with arms and legs gone, head mashed in, ghastly wounds of all sorts, and if he has the strength to speak at all he whispers "*Nichivo*," the equivalent of which in English is, "What difference does it make anyway?"

After getting a glimpse of the men and the munitions that permeate the life behind the army one is not surprised at the feats that these same men, backed by their organization and transport, are performing every day on the actual field of battle itself. While it is true that many of the recent actions have been rearguard affairs where it has been perfectly obvious that the enemy was making a stand only long enough to permit him to get out his impedimenta at his leisure, it is equally true that there have been other actions where he had not the slightest idea in the world of leaving unless he had to do so.

#### THE DESPERATE BATTLE OF IVANGOROD

To illustrate what I mean I would refer to the field of the battle which seems to be known as the Battle of Ivangorod. I have asked many people in the last few days what they knew of this action. All seemed to know in a vague way that it was a Russian victory. Some said it was a German-Austrian rearguard action, but few seemed to know any of the details of a contest which in any other war that this world has ever seen would fill books with its horrid details of fierce hand-to-hand fighting. As far as I know there is nothing in the history of war, with the possible exception of our own Battle of the Wilderness, that can touch this event I speak of, and the Virginia campaign in comparison as to losses, duration, and men en-

gaged was a mere skirmish. Yet a few weeks afterwards, other than the mere fact of it having taken place and having been won by the Russians, nothing much is known about it.

I am not going to try to describe the military or strategic aspects of this desperate conflict, because if one begins on the historical relation of battles in this war there is absolutely no ending. I shall, however, sketch briefly the nature of the work that the Russian soldiers did here; for in no battle of the whole war, on any front, has the fiber, determination, and courage of troops been put more thoroughly to the test than in this very action. The German program, as is now well known, contemplated taking both Warsaw and Ivangorod and the holding for the winter of the line between the two formed by the Vistula. The Russians took the offensive from Ivangorod, crossed the river, and after hideous fighting fairly drove Austrians and Germans from positions of great strength around the quaint little Polish town of Kozienice. From this town for perhaps ten miles west, and I know not how far north and south there is a belt of forest of fir and spruce. I say forest, but perhaps jungle is a better term; for it is so dense with trees and underbrush that one can hardly see fifty feet away. Near Kozienice the Russian infantry, attacking in flank and front, fairly wrested the enemy's position and drove him back into this jungle. The front was itself bristling with guns, and I counted in not over a mile forty-two gun positions. The taking of this line was in itself a test of the mettle of the Russian peasant soldier. But this was the beginning. Once in the wood the Russian artillery was limited in its effect upon the enemy, and in any event the few roads through the forest and the absence of open places made its use almost impossible. The enemy retired a little way into this wilderness and fortified. The Russians simply sent their troops in after them.

#### A "BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS" FOUGHT IN POLAND

The fight was now over a front of perhaps twenty kilometers; there was no strategy. It was all very simple. In this belt were Germans and Austrians. They were to be driven out if it took a month. Then began the carnage. Day after day the Russians fed troops in on their side of the wood. These entered were seen for a few minutes, then disappeared in the labyrinth of trees and were lost. Companies, battalions, regiments, and even brigades, were absolutely cut off from



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## RUSSIAN ADVANCE GUARD FOLLOWING MOVEMENTS OF PRUSSIAN TROOPS

(A detail of artillery officers of the Russian army watching the movements of the German forces)

all communication. None knew what was going on anywhere but a few feet in front. All knew that the only thing required of them was to keep advancing. And they did. Foot by foot, day after day, fighting hand to hand, taking and retaking position after position. For all of this ten kilometers of forest I venture to say there is hardly an acre without its trenches, rifle-pits, and now graves. Here one sees where a dozen men had a little fort all their own and fought furiously with the enemy a few feet away in a similar position. Day after day it went on and day after day troops were fed into the Russian side of the wood and day after day the intermittent crack of rifle fire and the roar of artillery hurling shells into the wood could be heard for miles. But the artillery played no very great part, for the density of the forest made it impossible to get an effective range. Yet the fire was kept up and the forest for miles looks as though a hurricane had swept through. Trees staggering from their shattered trunks and limbs hanging everywhere show where the shrapnel had been bursting.

Yard by yard the ranks and lines of the Austrians were driven back, but the nearer their retreat brought them to the open country west of the wood the hotter was the contest waged; for each man in his own mind must have known how matters would fare

with the retreat once the open country without shelter should be reached. The last two kilometers of the woody belt are something incredible to behold; there seems hardly an acre that is not sown like the scene of a paper chase,—only here with bloody bandages and bits of uniform. Still there was meager use for the artillery, but the rifle and the bayonet played the leading rôle. Men fighting hand to hand with clubbed muskets and bayonets contested each tree and ditch. But ever did the Russians systematically, patiently, steadily feed in the troops at their side of the wood.

The end was, of course, inevitable. The troops of the dual alliance could not, I suppose, fill their losses and the Russians could. Their army was under way, and as one sees them these days one feels that they would have taken that belt of wood if the entire peasant population of the Czar had been necessary to feed to the maw of that ghastly monster of carnage in the forest. But at last came the day when the dirty, grimy, bloody soldiers of the Czar pushed their antagonists out of the far side of the belt of woodland,—and what a scene there must have been in this lovely bit of open country with the quaint little village of Augustow at the cross-roads! Once out in the open the hungry guns of the Russians, so long yapping ineffectively without knowing what their shells



were doing, had their chance. Down every road through the forest came the six-horse teams with the guns jumping and jingling behind, with their accompanying caissons heavy with death-charged shrapnel, and the moment the enemy were in the clear these batteries, eight guns to a unit, were unlimbered on the fringe of the wood and pouring out their death and destruction on the wretched enemy now retreating hastily across the open. And the place where the Russians first turned loose on the retreat is a place to remember. Dead horses, bits of men, blue uniforms, shattered transport, overturned gun-carriages, bones, broken skulls, and grisley bits of humanity strew every acre of the ground.

#### ENORMOUS LOSSES ON BOTH SIDES

A Russian officer who seemed to be in authority on this gruesome spot volunteered the information that already they had buried at Kozienice, in the wood and on this open spot, 16,000 dead, and as far as I could make out the job was a long way from completed when I was on the field. Those that had fallen in the open and along the road had been decently interred, as the forests of crosses for ten miles along that bloody way clearly indicated, but back in the woods themselves were hundreds and hundreds of bodies that lay as they had fallen. Sixteen thousand dead means at least 70,000 casualties all told, or 35,000 on a side if losses were equally distributed. And this, figured on the basis of the 16,000 dead already buried, without allowing for the numbers of the fallen that still lie about in the woods. And yet here is a battle the name of which is, I daresay, hardly more than known in the United States, yet the losses on both sides amount to more than the entire army that Meade commanded at the Battle of Gettysburg.

If one wants to get an idea of what war is under these conditions it is only necessary to stroll back among the trees and wander about through the maze of rifle-pits and trenches thrown up by the desperate soldiery as they fought their way forward or defended their retreat. The battle is over now, and it is a clear, sunshiny day in the fall,—such a day as our Indian summers in New England when the life of spring seems almost to be coming back. All is peace and harmony and the little bugs are crawling about and insects humming in the sunshine. It seems incredible that anybody in all this serenity could want to kill anybody else. Yet at every step we stumble across the ghastly corpses of the

dead lying with glazed eyes staring into the blue cloudless heavens above them. Now all is serene and quiet, and save for the gentle murmur of the wind in the treetops there is not a sound to break the stillness of it all. And in each ghastly remnant of a human being that one sees is the pathetic story of some human life. Here alone, unwashed and unloved, lie the last earthly remains of men each of whom, somewhere, has a wife or sweetheart, mother or sister who would give half their life to have this poor mangled body that lies here rotting in the woods. And in each dead body is disclosed the story of the fight and the pathetic effort of the stricken man to stave off the inevitable.

Here men were scattered about apparently fighting one another in isolated groups, and there must have been hundreds and perhaps more who died alone in the forest with none to care for their wounds because none knew where to look for them. And he who has the heart to walk about in this ghastly place can read the last sad moments of almost every corpse. Here one sees a blue-coated Austrian with leg shattered by a jagged bit of a shell. The trouser perhaps has been ripped open and clumsy attempts been made to dress the wound, while a great splotch of red shows where the fading strength was exhausted before the flow of life's stream could be checked. Here again is a body with a ghastly rip in the chest, made perhaps by bayonet or shell fragment. Frantic hands now stiffened in death are seen trying to hold together great wounds from which life must have flowed in a few great spurts of blood. And here it is no fiction about the ground being soaked with gore. One can see it,—coagulated like bits of raw liver; while great chunks of sand and earth are in lumps, held together by this human glue. Other bodies lie in absolute peace and serenity. Struck dead with a rifle ball through the heart or some other instantly vital spot. These lie like men asleep, and on their faces is the peace of absolute rest and relaxation, but of these alas! there are few compared to the ones upon whose pallid, blood-stained faces one reads the last frantic agony of death. And what I have written here of the dead is only such as one can write; for of the more horrible sights of the battlefield it is impossible to write, and, indeed, very unpleasant to think at all.

#### THE FIBER OF THE RUSSIAN SOLDIER

I have mentioned this Battle of Ivangorod merely as a type to illustrate the manner of work that the Russians are doing these days



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## PAY DAY IN THE RUSSIAN ARMY

and to make clear the determination with which they are waging this war. In the terrible chaos which now involves all Europe it is doubtful if the world at large (other than the countries engaged) will ever realize the enormity of these operations. Even as I write now of the scene of carnage and blood in the woods at Augustow there is in the making about Cracow a battle of so much greater importance and on so much vaster a scale that perhaps when these lines are read the action I have spoken of will be utterly lost in its comparative insignificance. Personally, in my work I have long since abandoned any idea of trying to work out the details of the battles that are going on. A single one of these covers such an area and contains so many details that even to begin a study of a field means a vast amount of time. Before one action is fairly ended a far greater one is already under way, and all that a correspondent can hope to do in this war is to keep pace with the results from day to day, sending as well as may be the significant outcomes of what is going on and attempting to

work out the details at all. Such a story as this must be taken merely as a typical cross-section of a battle and in no way an attempt to make an accurate historical study of the military movement itself.

The soldiers themselves go on from battlefield to battlefield, from one scene of carnage to another. They see their regiments dwindle to nothing, their officers decimated, three-fourths of their comrades dead or wounded, and yet each night they gather about their bivouacs apparently undisturbed by it all. One sees them on the road the day after one of these desperate fights marching cheerfully along, singing songs and laughing and joking with one another. This is morale and it is of the stuff that victories are made. And of such is the fiber of the Russian soldier, scattered over these hundreds of miles of front to-day. He exists in millions much as I have described him above. He has abiding faith in his companions, in his officers, and in his cause. I think myself that sooner or later he will win. Time alone can say when his victory will come.



# THE WORLD'S TRADE IN WAR TIME

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

THIS is a story of trade as affected by the world's trade under war conditions is that provided by such statistics of foreign war: or, rather, a picture of business at different ends of the world as well as amidst the chaos of battle, drawn in the advantage to perspective from a neutral viewpoint.

An aspect of modern war whose effects must have gripped everyone who has studied them in the past six months is the reaction on the trade of the innocent bystander. Before he knew why the market for his product had suddenly been cut off, the fisherman in Labrador, the nitrate miner in Chile, the dealer in bristles in Siberia, the silk merchant in China, and the trader along the African coast had to go on short rations. The trade world has become so sensitized through the modern means of communication and the intimate banking relations that a convulsion, political or economic, in one part of it, is instantly reflected in greater or less degree in every other part.

The present war, big in its proportion to every other war in history, is also big in its reactions outside the military zone. It is estimated that 450,000,000 people are directly under its influence, and that nearly as many more are daily experiencing, in some form or other, the losses it entails. One of the strangest consequences of the struggle is that the further away one goes from the firing line the more complete demoralization will be found in business conditions and the greater are the economic and social problems due to closed markets and excessive unemployment.

In the first month after the war the trade of the world dropped nearly 50 per cent. By October it had begun to revive, though only in so far as it was trade meeting the requirements of war. With readjustments such as always come slowly but surely from out the necessity of great emergencies, business brightened in almost every quarter of the globe during the autumn and has been very much increased with the clearing of the seas of German cruisers.

The best background for this picture of

the world's trade under war conditions is that provided by such statistics of foreign trade since August as are now available. For the United States and Great Britain it is possible to tell the story to date, but only scattered and scant information comes from continental Europe, South America, and the East.

## UNCLE SAM'S TRADE STATUS

Although the United States has more to gain from the war in a material sense, her exports in August decreased 40 per cent., while those of Great Britain were off only 45 per cent. In this month Austrian exports fell from \$43,500,000, the 1913 figure, to \$6,000,000, and imports were 65 per cent. lower. French imports were cut 50 per cent. and exports the same. Italian imports were reduced \$14,000,000 and exports \$22,000,000. In Argentina, Brazil, and Chile the trade with other countries dropped an average of 50 per cent. In August the value of American exports to Germany was \$68,737, as against \$21,301,274 in the same month the year before. These figures give some idea of the paralysis of trade while armies were mobilizing and the first successes in the field were being recorded in the annals of the day.

Men, in those first thirty or forty days of war, were dazed, inert, crushed down by the sudden collapse of enterprise and fortune. Ports were crowded with ships without cargoes. If there was little going out of the country, there was less coming in, and if a nation were a chronic debtor to other nations, this was not to its disadvantage. Exchange in New York on London was quoted as high as \$6.50. This prohibited commercial transactions except those of the most urgent sort. The banks of the country pooled their gold, and as we were in debt to Europe to the tune of \$300,000,000,—and some said \$400,000,000,—with the bill payable in London, we proceeded to reduce the account out of pocket and then out of resources.

From August 1 to December 31 a most striking change came over the foreign trade status of the country. In the earlier month imports were nearly \$22,000,000 greater than exports; in the latter period exports were \$110,000,000 in excess of imports. In August exports were \$108,198,000; in December they were more than double that figure. As we had been enlarging our sales we had been contracting our purchases, until the December bill to Europe and other countries with which the United States trades was the smallest in years. Frequently, of late, the weekly figures of imports at the Port of New York have shown a contraction of 40 per cent. Some part of this, of course, is due to inability to secure supplies from markets that made a specialty of them. At the same time when the returns on such articles as silks, jewelry, wines, antiques, and other non-essentials to a simple life are analyzed, it will be found that the American people are doing without many things which they had accustomed themselves through many years of prosperity to consider necessary to their happiness.

#### BUSINESS CONDITIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN

In the August-December period the total exports of Great Britain were \$692,723,000, whereas they had been \$1,146,209,600 the year before, and imports were \$1,352,135,000, or about \$290,000,000 less than in 1913. The measure of English trade activity is in the figure of imports rather than exports, for when England reduces her purchases of raw material it is safe to assume that her factories are running on reduced hours.

The presence of the *Emden* in the Indian Ocean last September was responsible for a decrease of \$10,000,000 in India's import of cotton goods and for a \$15,000,000 loss in Calcutta's market for jute. While the fleet of Admiral Von Spee ruled the south Pacific and the *Karlsruhe* was active in the south Atlantic, shipping between Argentina, Brazil, and Chile was almost at a standstill.

Briefly sketched, the present business conditions throughout Europe are approximately as follows:

In England the percentage of unemployment is lower than usual, on account of the heavy drafts that have been made on able-bodied men for the army. The enormous requirements in the way of clothing, provisioning, and providing with war implements millions of English, French, Belgian, and

Russian troops, have carried the capacity of many British factories to their maximum. The woolen and worsted mills in Huddersfield are turning out cloth at an unprecedented rate. Over 3000 miles of khaki were produced in the last quarter of 1914, and orders for 3000 miles more are on hand. The Birmingham district is at white-heat activity in the manufacture of implements that war requires. The shipping yards have seldom been so busy as they are now.

#### THE DECLINE IN GERMANY'S TRADE

In Germany the first effect of the war was almost complete paralysis of trade. Trade is described by one German paper as having been "smashed to atoms" in August. There were at one time 1,500,000 men and 500,000 women out of work. The inability to secure raw material was the greatest handicap Germany had imposed on her by the closing of her ports and the interning of those of her ships not destroyed by the enemy. In August the production of pig iron was only a third that of July, while the output of steel ingots was 566,822 tons, as against 1,627,345 tons the month previous. By October there had been much improvement, with pig-iron production 792,822 tons, although in November the output was slightly smaller. With a larger percentage of skilled labor in her army than in those of the Allies, Germany's industrial productive forces have suffered greater permanent loss than have her enemies. Add to this the difficulty in securing raw materials, cotton selling at 21 cents a pound when Texas planters were glad to get 7 cents for it, and copper metal twice as high in the Rhine Valley as on shipboard at American ports, and we are not surprised that the foreign trade of the country should have suffered as it has. As in Great Britain, so there is in Germany artificial stimulus to certain industries in supplying the requisitions of war, and when Germans and English alike speak cheerfully of their present business conditions they cover over the side of the picture that deals with trade unrelated to war. Obviously, the great burden of Germany is in the loss of her shipping, which is estimated at about 1,200,000 tons, or about six times the English loss. In Hamburg failures since the war, due to shipping disasters, are estimated at \$130,000,000.

#### THE COLLAPSE IN FRANCE

Although the make-up of the French army is 40 per cent. farmers, the industrial collapse in the Republic has been greater than



in any other country at war, save devastated Belgium.

This is explained in two ways: first, by the larger percentage of men mobilized to total able-bodied men; and, second, by the high proportion of articles of luxury figuring in French manufactures.

Had the German army not occupied the northern section of France, industry must have been greatly curtailed; but when textile mills were turned into forts and barracks, and coal mines into trenches, and the mills of Lyons into hospitals, the productive agencies of France were reduced to a minimum.

In November, French exports to the United States were \$7,259,420, whereas those of Germany were nearly \$12,000,000. We had to have what Germany produced; we could get along comfortably without much that France had for sale.

#### INDUSTRIAL SITUATION IN THE REST OF EUROPE

Switzerland has been described as a neutral nation entirely surrounded by war. Hence her discomfort and her legitimate irritation. She has had to be so careful about the character of her imports that she has had difficulty to feed her own people and the refugees within her gates. Bound up with the prosperity of outside nations, and, like France, ministering to those with fat purses, the sudden withdrawal of her usual patrons has made her economic position most uncomfortable. Production of spinning and weaving mills at present is off 50 per cent.

In less degree Holland has suffered, for her shipping has fallen 45 per cent. at Amsterdam and 65 per cent. at Rotterdam. The army of her diamond cutters is idle, while the impoverished Belgian neighbor helps to con-

sume the Kingdom's diminished resources.

Italy has had a few benefits and a multitude of commercial bruises from the war. Her first problem was to take care of her unemployed, then to control prices of food-stuffs, latterly to export without friction the surplus products of her little farms and her factories in the north to nations that might buy them without serious political consequences.

In August, Austrian exports were only half those of September, but by October exports had risen to \$32,000,000, compared with \$12,500,000 in September. Austria has had big crops of grain and sugar, so that her people will be well supplied with foodstuffs. But the serious problem with her, as with Germany, is to obtain raw materials for manufacture.

Russian trade has been hit harder than Petrograd admits, for intercourse with Germany has been abandoned, and this means much when we realize that one-half of Russia's exports of \$800,000,000 per annum were taken by Germany, and that an import item of \$600,000,000 has been much curtailed. But the suspension of vodka sales has increased by 30 per cent, the efficiency of the laborer and artisan.

#### OUR OWN EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

In no other way is it possible better to picture the conditions of trade in the various countries of the world since the war began than through the monthly figures of exports from the United States and of imports into the United States. Consequently, these statistics are presented below for the period August 1 to November 30, and the total of exports and imports for these months contrasted with the same months in 1913:

#### EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO

1914

	August.	September.	October.	November.	Total Four Months.	Same Months in 1913.
Austria .....	\$.....	\$.....	\$.....	\$.....	\$.....	\$ 6,744,504
Belgium .....	432,527	747,000	446,000	121,816	1,747,343	24,540,428
Denmark .....	748,232	3,445,000	7,981,000	13,032,805	25,207,037	5,430,344
France .....	7,420,000	19,008,000	17,037,000	20,864,579	64,269,579	74,607,999
Germany .....	68,737	2,378	17,508	42,136	130,759	152,597,078
Greece .....	435,999	3,224,000	66,000	1,089,186	5,423,185	312,283
Italy .....	1,169,000	4,322,000	11,119,000	17,031,754	33,641,754	26,651,377
Netherlands .....	2,524,488	7,974,000	3,975,000	7,094,092	21,567,580	37,713,377
Norway .....	1,077,259	2,990,000	4,134,000	3,770,820	11,972,079	3,435,428
Russia .....	76,681	207,000	3,930,000	668,036	4,881,717	8,575,692
Spain .....	1,090,000	3,209,000	2,422,000	3,170,439	9,891,439	12,253,602
Sweden .....	3,120,000	1,698,000	5,830,000	7,466,940	15,306,940	5,454,480
Switzerland .....	4,093	4,328	37,000	3,385	48,806	230,839
United Kingdom ....	32,951,000	41,878,000	72,474,000	69,589,297	215,892,297	304,405,644
Argentina .....	971,129	3,054,986	1,683,693	1,207,350	6,917,150	19,572,733
Brazil .....	1,604,000	2,817,000	1,362,000	1,691,030	7,474,030	12,160,698
Chile .....	596,000	462,000	1,369,168	700,000	3,127,168	5,569,217
Peru .....	500,000	237,000	387,588	350,000	1,474,588	2,332,500

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM  
1914

	August.	September.	October.	November.	Total Four Months.	Same Months in 1913.
Austria .....	\$ 880,506	\$ 119,000	\$ 362,000	\$1,173,655	\$2,538,161	\$6,377,618
Belgium .....	2,329,145	919,000	653,000	207,315	4,018,460	12,822,573
Denmark .....	229,628	228,000	366,000	640,893	1,464,521	939,027
France .....	6,902,603	5,817,000	7,802,000	7,259,420	27,781,023	50,020,228
Germany .....	9,400,000	2,732,000	6,168,000	11,920,000	30,220,000	63,509,299
Greece .....	147,057	206,000	597,000	685,000	1,635,000	1,424,128
Italy .....	3,445,000	3,658,000	5,627,000	4,858,000	17,588,000	17,311,641
Netherlands .....	3,446,042	5,134,000	2,942,000	2,944,000	14,466,000	11,185,018
Norway .....	1,071,000	1,361,000	1,762,000	1,201,000	5,395,000	2,992,772
Russia .....	740,000	137,000	54,000	10,277	941,277	6,947,586
Spain .....	1,608,000	1,242,000	2,553,000	2,412,000	7,815,000	9,157,893
Sweden .....	614,000	666,000	1,292,000	1,576,000	4,148,000	3,970,658
Switzerland .....	1,017,000	1,177,000	1,688,000	1,875,000	5,757,000	8,921,958
United Kingdom....	17,872,000	32,146,000	25,057,590	20,647,000	95,722,590	87,961,269
Argentina .....	4,173,000	3,418,245	5,870,000	3,363,167	16,824,412	7,721,785
Brazil .....	5,094,000	5,553,000	8,885,000	8,627,000	28,159,000	32,459,878
Chile .....	1,207,000	2,104,000	2,238,000	2,286,000	7,835,000	8,086,940
Peru .....	1,263,000	752,000	765,000	999,594	3,779,594	3,807,509

## FOODSTUFFS, COTTON, AND OCEAN RATES

From July 1, 1914, to January 15, of this year, the exports of wheat and flour from the United States were 215,000,000 bushels, whereas they were 165,000,000 bushels the year before. The exports of corn were about 8,000,000 bushels,—a seven-fold increase. But the story with cotton is different, for while American exports in this same period a year ago were 5,611,062 bales, with a price that averaged 12 cents a pound, they have been under 3,000,000 bales during the past year, with the value per pound cut nearly a third.

More wheat would have gone out, certainly much more cotton, had the seas been clear. Ocean freight room to-day is as scarce as it was abundant in August. Ocean freight rates are such that the profit in a few cruises has been known to cover the cost of the smaller vessels. Here is a schedule of ocean rates between New York and Liverpool as they exist to-day and on July 30:

	December 31.	July 30.
Grain, per bu. ....	8½d.	2½d.
Flour, sack .....	35c.	12c.
Provisions, ton .....	35 shil.	20 shil.
Cotton, cwt. ....	75c.	25c.

To Rotterdam, owing to the danger of navigation in the North Sea, the rate on grain is 15d., on flour 55c., on provisions 75 shillings, and on cotton \$2 per cwt. In the last month ships have been sailing from Galveston and Savannah to Bremen laden with cotton. The July rate on this character of tonnage was 20 cents per cwt. and now it is \$3.

In a general way it may be said that rates on all cargoes have advanced from 40 to 200 per cent., and that so great is the present

demand for ocean room that sailing vessels fit for transatlantic service are being chartered as rapidly as possible, while charters formerly made at \$5000 a month now bring \$40,000 a month.

## IS THERE A SCARCITY OF TONNAGE?

Fifty per cent. of tonnage usually available is out of commission at a time when the United States is called upon to send abroad a greater volume of commodities than ever before. This is a problem that the advocates of the ship-purchase bill must face.

A government-owned shipping industry cannot create out of hand the vessels immediately demanded by the unusual emergency existing. The complications that have already arisen from the transfer of one German vessel to the American flag limit the extent of invasion of American capital into the German maritime field.

At the present time 70 per cent. of the shipments from this country are being made in British bottoms, and 20 per cent. in those of Scandinavian vessels.

Although under the new ship registry law 111 vessels have been added to the American merchant marine, with gross tonnage of 396,990, the United States is dividing with Italy the remaining 10 per cent. of shipping advantage, at a time when American exports are the greatest in our history.

By whatever means it comes about, the American people ought to see to it that the proportion of their trade carried under the flag of the country henceforth increases. In 1913, of a business of \$3,773,000,000, only \$381,000,000 was conveyed under American registry. In 1860, when our trade was but \$762,000,000, over 65 per cent. of it went abroad in American ships.





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#### THE MEETING OF THE THREE SCANDINAVIAN KINGS AT MALMÖ, SWEDEN

(Left to right: King Haakon of Norway, King Gustaf of Sweden, and King Christian of Denmark)

## SCANDINAVIA'S SITUATION

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN

**T**O each one of the three Scandinavian kingdoms the war has brought plenty of danger and disturbance. But quite unexpectedly it has also brought some good results, and these promise to endure long beyond the bad ones. The old, old dream of Scandinavian fellowship,—which does not necessarily imply unity of government,—seems now nearer a practical materialization than it has ever been in the history of the three countries. And the immediate fruit of this rapprochement is a new and more valid hope that one part of Europe at least will remain outside the world-conflict.

At the outbreak of the war, Sweden and Norway entered on an agreement practically amounting to a defensive alliance. They undertook mutually, not only to support one another to the utmost in the case of either one's neutrality being menaced by any power, but to refrain from any step whatsoever that might tend to produce such a menace. This

understanding had an almost magic effect in removing the bitterness still lingering between the sister nations. Denmark remained outside, however, and the relationship between that country and Sweden continued precarious to such an extent that people could be found who actually declared an open conflict inevitable. At the bottom of this disharmony lay several things: Swedish resentment because Denmark had grinned when Norway broke out of the union in 1905, and Danish resentment because Sweden had got even by ceasing to use Denmark as a middleman in its dealings with the rest of the world; also, Danish fear of Sweden's pro-German leanings, and Swedish dislike of Denmark's close relationship to Russia.

Had German diplomacy been on a level with its military ability, no one can tell how the friction between Sweden and Denmark may have ended. But here as elsewhere German tactlessness and arrogance proved ef-

fective. Official German representatives were constantly nagging at the three Scandinavian governments for alleged breaches of neutrality. Unofficial representatives resorted to open intimidation. Hints about the formation of a Scandinavian empire under German hegemony were frequently heard, and took as often the form of a threat as of a promise. The strongest kind of pressure was employed to force the three countries into rendering services that would have aroused the hostility of the powers opposed to Germany. German naval vessels sneaked into Norwegian ports without pilots and maneuvered in or near Swedish territorial waters as if these had been German or Russian. While Germany was trying to arouse American opinion against England because of the latter power's interference with neutral shipping in the Atlantic and the North Sea, it reserved for itself the right to deal in the most high-handed manner with Scandinavian shipping in the Baltic. And at a time when such a step could have little or no practical importance, Germany put a contraband prohibition on the free trade in lumber, which step in Sweden, as well as in Norway, was regarded as a veiled threat against each nation's right to shape its own destiny.

There can be no doubt that the most serious factor in inter-Scandinavian politics at the outbreak of the war was the pro-German jingoism of a powerful Swedish element, whose foremost mouthpiece was the explorer, Sven Hedin. Even at that early stage the majority of the Swedish nation stood inexorably for scrupulous neutrality, although a passive sympathy for Germany was often coupled with a keen fear of Russia. But as events progressed, the dangerous element in Sweden lost ground more and more, while the sensible portions of the nation began to temper their fear of Russia with a growing distrust of Germany. It was thus that the ground for a rapprochement between Sweden and Denmark became gradually prepared.

#### MEETING OF THE THREE KINGS

The first step to reveal the changing sentiment in both countries was taken by King Gustaf of Sweden,—a fact that was doubly significant because this monarch has always been credited with strong pro-German leanings and because the sense of a mutual grievance first developed in Sweden. On September 18 the three Scandinavian sovereigns, each one accompanied by his foreign minister, met in the Swedish city of Malmö. Their conferences lasted two days. Officially it

was announced that the objects of those conferences were two: to accentuate the unanimous intention of the three countries to preserve their neutrality, and to discuss common steps for the amelioration of the difficulties resulting from the war. Officially it was also announced that both these objects had been well served by the conferences. Throughout the three kingdoms these announcements were received with unmistakable satisfaction, and it was noticed that, for once, Socialist and Conservative newspapers were speaking of the same event in almost identical terms.

There is, as I have already suggested, a long step from this meeting of monarchs and ministers to a union of the nations represented by them. But there can be no doubt about the direction in which the Scandinavian peoples are tending. While men like Sven Hedin are losing ground daily, men like Dr. Fridtjof Nansen are gaining steadily. The noted Norwegian explorer and former minister to London has been devoting almost all his time lately to the advocacy of a strong Norwegian army and navy, as well as their coördination with the Swedish army and navy for the common defense of both countries. A few days before the meeting of the three kings at Malmö, Dr. Nansen gave a lecture at Stockholm, and it was noted that his audience included an unusual number of representative men from all the Swedish parties, who greeted him enthusiastically.

#### A UNION FOR PEACE, NOT WAR

Sweden has already provided for an increase in the quality as well as quantity of its defensive forces. If Norway accepts the proposals made by Dr. Nansen, as it probably will, the two countries will have a joint army of 850,000 well trained men ready for any emergency. The entrance of Denmark into the coalition will mean a Scandinavian army of more than 1,100,000. Speculations have already been heard as to the part such an army might play on this or that side of the present conflict. All such speculations are fruitless. If a Scandinavian coalition comes into existence it will be neither pro-German nor pro-English, neither anti-German nor anti-Russian; it will be pro-Scandinavian pure and simple; it will be a combination on behalf of peace, and not for the sake of war. It may, in fact, prove the nucleus of the great peace league, in which thinking men of all nations are more and more inclined to put their only hope of universal pacification.





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AUSTRALIAN SOLDIERS ENCAMPED NEAR THE PYRAMIDS IN EGYPT

# WHY EGYPT IS SECURE AGAINST THE TURKS

BY DR. S. NAHAS

[Dr. Nahas, who is resident in Alexandria, Egypt, and one of our readers, sends us the following statement, which gives a most clear and convincing picture of the situation in his country and of the strength of the English as against the plan of the Turks to regain their power.—THE EDITOR.]

**A** KNOWLEDGE of the Egyptian, his character, aspirations and abilities, will readily answer the question why the Turks cannot succeed. Centuries succeeded to centuries; ages rolled by; conquerors disappeared to make room for new ones,—still the Egyptian remained unmoved and unchanged. Time altered him no more than it altered the Sphinx and the pyramids of his Sahara. His mentality and habits, his food and clothing, have not varied. He still uses the same plough his forefathers used thousands of years ago, dwells in the same huts, clothes himself in the same way.

With an even eye has he considered the different nations that have come to rule him. Did they not, all alike, invade his land to rob and plunder, make him work day and night, and exact from him his earnings by whip and torture? What mattered who they were since he would have to slave for them just the same all his life, naked and half-starved? So ages of oppression destroyed in him freedom, initiative and pride, and developed, instead, apathy and fatalism, leaving him a primitive and ignorant child.

## WHEN THE ENGLISH CAME

When England came he hardly noticed, at first, that he had a new master. Six thousand

English soldiers occupied the land, with hardly a battle, so strong was his indifference. What mattered to him a new master? He had nothing to lose. Slowly, though, he began to realize that British government officials did not come to rob, but to protect him. His lands and his harvest were no longer, under one pretext or another, confiscated. Judges were there to vindicate him when wronged, and not to help his rich oppressors.

Between him and his new master stood only one barrier,—his religion and fanaticism. In the cities schools were opened and young Egyptians could get education and learning. The rich among them went abroad to finish their studies. They mostly acquired a superficial, incomplete knowledge, and came back imbued only with ideas of liberty and self-government.

Newspapers sprang into being, dealing heatedly with those questions. That this movement was premature and denoted lack of judgment appears readily from the fact that the great mass of the population was still absolutely and densely ignorant. The time was not yet come; and England plainly told the Egyptians so. But we never like to admit another's superiority; and to human nature the wound to vanity is the hardest to

forgive. So it was that, thwarted in their aspirations, they nursed ill feelings against the English.

#### SCHEMING OF THE TURKS

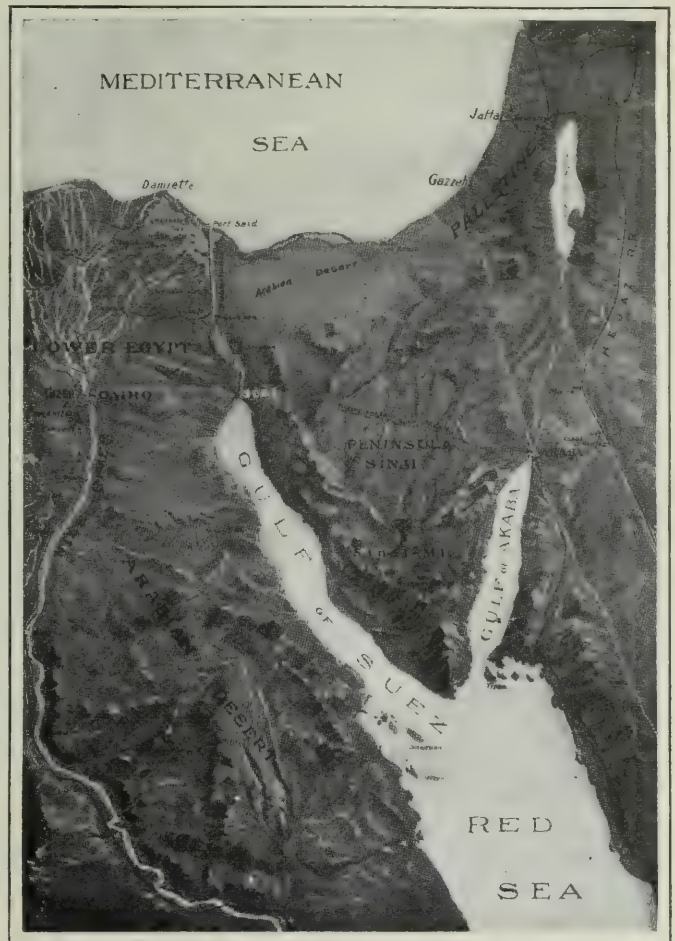
The enemies of England, finding the ground ready, worked hard to widen the breach. Foremost among these enemies stood the Turks. They had lost most by British occupation. Were they not the supplanted masters? Had not England deprived them of their position, their plunder, their high-handed authority? Intimately connected with the Khedival family, and its branches, occupying high places in the court, the army and the administration, they formed the aristocracy of Egypt, which, as a conquered land, had none of its own.

The ambition of every rich and educated Egyptian was to get into this inner circle, his first step being to marry a Turkish woman. The influence of the Turks was thus tremendous; and this they used to instil their hatred in ready and eager ears. Naturally the farmer and the peasant were not impervious to this wave of feeling, though not for wishing self-government or freedom. To the "fellah" or peasant these words had no meaning. One thing and this only might move his apathy,—religion and fanaticism.

#### THE RELIGIOUS QUESTION

Far away in Stamboul lives the Sultan, his Khalif, whom Allah has made to rule on one-third of the globe with power untold. If the Khalif wishes, and unfurls the standard of Mohammed that has lain folded for centuries, then every Moslem, even he, must rise and fight the holy war against the Christians.

And now, last night, his sheikh has come and whispered to him the news: The holy war is declared, and the Emperor of Germany, a friend of the Moslems, and himself a Moslem at heart, to be sure, is fighting with their Khalif against the English and



MAP ILLUSTRATING SOME OF THE DIFFICULTIES OF A MILITARY MOVEMENT AGAINST EGYPT

other Christians. So he must rise. And when the sheikh was gone he sat and pondered.

He found himself unarmed, unprepared and unorganized. His English master he knew to be kind and good, but also swift and stern when disobeyed. Further, he knew him to be very strong. Then think of how much he had to lose! True, the Turks are his brothers in religion, but he has not yet forgotten how he fared at his brothers' hands. True, the English are Christians, but "malesh!" what does it matter? He will curse them for it in his heart.

And so it was that even fanaticism could not change what years and centuries of oppression had made of him, a helpless being, living with no trace of energy or initiative. Naturally things would change if ever Turkish soldiers should set their feet in Egypt. Then there would be no doubt as to where his help would go. Otherwise, he will never



move. Turkey is at war now, and, notwithstanding, one thing is sure,—never has Egypt been quieter.

#### WHAT CAN TURKEY DO?

The next question is: What are the chances of a Turkish attack against Egypt? An invasion by sea being out of consideration, the only possibility is for a Turkish force to proceed from the Syrian frontier and cross the Suez Canal. The boundaries of Egypt extend some distance beyond this canal, including the whole of the Sinai peninsula, a desert of sandy hills. Actually only two caravan routes lead from the frontier across this desert to the canal. Both are 180 to 190 miles long through absolute wilderness.

This would mean ten days' marching for an invading army. Further, this army must rely only on its own provisions and water supply, since even the wells have been mined and destroyed. The only possible method of transportation through this desert of sand is the canal, and, according to authorities, it is reckoned that a complete equipment, baggage, ammunition, and water for the period of ten days would require a load of a camel and a half for every soldier. An army of 60,000 men would then require 90,000 camels.

Naturally, only the transport of the very lightest artillery is thus possible. Should the Turks succeed in overcoming these difficulties, they would only be at the beginning of

their troubles, since they would still have the Suez Canal to cross, a canal fifty meters wide at its narrowest part.

And England is ready and prepared. All along the Egyptian side a large entrenched camp has been built, fortified with artillery, and an army composed only of whites and Indians is there on watch. That this army is sufficient in size can be inferred from the fact that in Cairo alone there are actually 30,000 soldiers. Turkey to-day, with her hands full against Russia, obliged to keep an eye on the Balkans, and an army to watch the turbulent Christian population of the Lebanon, can send, at the best and largest of estimates, only 100,000 men against Egypt.

Handicapped by a long march across the desert, deficient in artillery, what can the Turks do once in front of the canal?

How can they expect to cross it in front of a foe amply prepared to meet them? And if they are unable to do it at once, how are they to get food, water, provisions? How will they be able to prevent a complete disaster?

No. Egypt is safe, Egypt is quiet, and will remain safe and quiet, thanks to its strategic position and to the active forethought and unflinching energy of the English.

And it could not be otherwise. England may allow a revolution to break out anywhere in her possessions, but she can never allow even the possibility of one here, for Egypt is the main artery of her colonies.



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BRITISH DEFENSIVE WORKS ON THE SUEZ CANAL



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THE TRIUMPHAL RE-ENTRY OF THE SERVIANS INTO BELGRADE, THEIR CAPITAL

# SERVIA'S STRUGGLE

BY MICHAEL I. PUPIN

[Professor Pupin, of Columbia University,—world-famed through his invention of improved methods for the transmission of electrical waves, used in long-distance telephony,—has become almost equally well known as an eloquent spokesman on behalf of the people of the kingdom of Servia and the Serbs of kindred blood and speech who occupy adjacent parts of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. He came to this country in his boyhood, from a Servian neighborhood under Austrian jurisdiction.—THE EDITOR.]

AUSTRIA'S charge against Servia is that Servia is responsible for the political upheavals in the southern provinces of Austria, and for the Balkan bitterness which culminated in the assassination of the Archduke and the Archduchess in Sarajevo on June 28, 1914. Austria maintains that she was forced to proceed against Servia or resign her position among the great powers of Europe, and perhaps see her southern provinces rise in open rebellion.

But Austria has produced not a single particle of evidence to prove this serious charge against Servia; and the world believes to-day that she proceeded against Servia on the basis of a well constructed pretext.

Servia has always been opposed by Austria, from the very beginning, when the Christian Serbs of the Ottoman Empire first rose in rebellion against Turkish feudalism, in 1804. Austria tried in every possible way to defeat the objects of this rebellion; and from 1829 (when the Serbs in Servia obtained their political autonomy) up to the present time, she has made numerous attempts to interfere with the peaceful development of the new Serb principality.

The whole world knows of the economic repression which Austria practised by closing her frontier against Servia and thus interfering most seriously with the exportation of Servian products. It knows also of the opposition which Austria exerted against





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PRINCE KARAGEORGEVITCH

GEN. RADOMIR PUTNIK  
THREE SERBIAN COMMANDERS

GEN. BOZA YANKOVITCH

Servia's attempt, through the two Balkan wars, to obtain an outlet to the sea. Austria persuaded Bulgaria to attack Servia unexpectedly, in June, 1913, and thus precipitate the second Balkan war. A volume might be filled with the enumeration of the various hostile acts which Austria was always ready to launch against Servia.

The question arises now, Why should Austria be so hostile to the little kingdom? The answer is obvious and has been given on many occasions by men who are well acquainted with European diplomacy and economic history. It is this: The Austrian policy of "Drang nach Osten,"—that is, Austrian longing to expand southward and to take possession of the coast of the Egean Sea. But Servia was in the way, just as the old Serb empire was in the way of the Ottoman expansion in the direction of Austria and the rest of Europe.

#### REBIRTH OF THE OLD SERBIAN EMPIRE

When the Serb empire fell, in 1389, the name of the Serb disappeared and was soon forgotten. For four hundred years Europe did not know that the Serb race existed; but in the beginning of the nineteenth century two events brought about a rediscovery of the race.

A Serb scholar, Karajich, published the Serb ballads, folk-songs, and proverbs, which he had collected in travels through the Balkans. It was the greatest literary sensation of the time; and Europe saw that although the Turk had taken away everything from

the Serb, he could not take away his wonderful poetic genius. The body of the Serb was enslaved by Turkish feudalism during four hundred years, but his spirit lived and expressed itself in the language of these beautiful ballads, folk-songs, and proverbs.

The principal motif of this poetry was the motto that the Serb should fight on until the czardom of the great Stephan Doushan might be reestablished by a union of all the Serbs. In other words, the nationalistic movement, which among the Italians and the Germans did not manifest itself until the middle of the nineteenth century, existed among the Serbs for five hundred years. This is the nationalistic movement which Austria has opposed since it was first noticed, in the beginning of the nineteenth century.

The second historic incident which reminded Europe of the existence of the Serb race is the rise of the Serbs in Servia against Ottoman feudalism, in 1804. The leader of this rebellion was Karageorge (Black George), the grandfather of the present King of Servia. The rebellion started a struggle which lasted for twenty-five years, until 1829, when at the peace of Adrianople the Sultan granted political autonomy to Servia.

#### ECONOMIC INDEPENDENCE OF THE PEASANT

The unbearable agrarian condition was the real cause of the Serb rebellion in 1804; and, when the rebellion succeeded, the agrarian problem was solved in such a way as to offer



KING PETER ON THE BATTLEFIELD

not only political, but also economic, freedom.

The people proceeded to form a constitutional government. They copied the English constitution, but went a step farther. The land was bought from the Turkish feudal lords by the state, and redistributed among the people. Forest land and pasture land were not redistributed, but were kept as permanent property of the state; so that every peasant, by paying a nominal fee, could cut firewood or timber, or pasture his stock, on land belonging to the state.

The distribution of the arable land was effected in such a way that opportunity to make an independent living was afforded to as many as possible. To-day there are among the 300,000 landholders in Serbia only three who have 500 acres of land, and more than half the total number of landowners have only ten acres. To the land is attached the inalienable right to vote, and thus to have at

least some voice in the councils of the state.

Servia to-day is one of the most democratic countries in Europe. Her aspirations are those of a true altruistic democracy.

Look now at Hungary, and you will see that the bulk of the land is in the hands of practically forty owners. There are quite a number of nobles in Hungary who have as many as half a million acres of land, and the estates of a number of religious institutions count millions of acres. Crown lands are to

be seen everywhere. The result is that the peasant of Hungary is not nearly as well off as the peasant of Servia.

It is obvious that this unfortunate economic condition of the Serbs in Austria creates a strong desire among them to slip away and join fortunate Servia. The feudal lords who are the rulers of Austria know this; hence their bitterness against Servia. It is the distressing economic condition of the Serbs in Bosnia and

PRINCE ALEXANDER OF SERVIA WITH GENERALS  
YOUITCH AND RACHITCH AT TOUITCHIZO





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## SERBIAN SOLDIERS DIRECTING THEIR FIRE AT THE ENEMY'S TRENCH

Herzegovina which keeps up the national political unrest among them, and not the agitation of secret political societies subsidized by the Servian Government.

## THE SERBIAN SOLDIER'S HEROISM AND SUCCESS

The peasant soldier of Servia knows to-day that, if he loses in this struggle against Austria, he will be deprived of not only his political but also his economic freedom. Hence his heroic efforts to defend that for which Black George and the Serbs of the rebellion of 1804 sacrificed their life-blood.

Servia was not prepared for this war. Moreover, she was totally exhausted by the two Balkan wars. And this makes the present struggle extremely hard. The success of the Servian arms thus far must be attributed to the extraordinary enthusiasm and heroism of the army as a whole, and of each individual soldier.

Military critics long ago pronounced the leadership of Servian generals as equal to any in Europe. In the present conflict, the poor health of King Peter has placed the burden of political and military affairs mainly upon the shoulders of the young Crown Prince Alexander. The heroes of the campaigns are General Putnik and General Yankovich.

Leadership and heroism, however, will

fail if the supplies of the army fail. Russia, England, and France know this and will see to it that Servia and Montenegro are well supplied with means necessary for their heroic advance. Nevertheless, the fact remains that most of the soldiers in Servia to-day wear sandals and have no uniforms. Their retreat before the Austrian host, during the dark days of November, was due, I believe, to lack of ammunition. When ammunition arrived, in the nick of time, they drove the Austrians out of Servia like a flock of sheep. The country, however, over which the Austrian army had passed was left a desert. Over a hundred thousand non-combatants were driven towards the south; and there they are to-day, facing all the horrors of homeless paupers.

## PRESENT NEEDS OF PEOPLE

An American nurse who has just returned from Servia tells me (and her statement is verified by letters and cables which I received) that the Servian Red Cross is very much hampered in its work by lack of hospital supplies. America was the only source from which they could receive assistance, and they received it to a certain extent. When the war broke out, I formed relief committees in every Serb colony in the United States, and from the small contributions of the Serb workmen in the mining



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PEASANT WOMEN OF SERVIA AIDING THEIR SOLDIERS IN GETTING HEAVY GUNS OVER BAD SPOTS IN THE ROAD

regions of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Michigan, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, Montana, Alaska, and so forth, I succeeded in collecting over \$80,000, with which hospital supplies were bought here and sent to Servia. This is practically the only assistance which the Servian Red Cross received from abroad. But this assistance is far too small. During November there was a long period when the Servian Red Cross had no hospital

supplies of any kind, and many rugged peasant soldiers died of blood-poisoning, on account of lack of proper disinfectants.

#### BALKAN RIVALRIES

A condition which makes the present struggle of Servia almost unbearable is the hostility of Bulgaria and of Albania. These countries are under Austrian influence, and they menace Servia on her southern borders,



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HEAVY SERVIAN ARTILLERY IN ACTION





SERVIAN AMMUNITION WAGON

compelling her to keep a large part of her army from the actual seat of operations on the Austrian side. If it were not for this, Serbia and Montenegro would long ago have made a successful invasion of Bosnia and Herzegovina,—although the Serbs of Serbia and Montenegro have no desire whatever to extend their rule over any part of Austria which is not purely Serb.

The Serbs of Serbia and Montenegro are a very conservative people. They love their

old customs, their language, and their national aspirations. And they are particularly jealous of their democratic institutions. They are a proud, self-respecting people, always showing a due regard for the rights of others, but jealously protecting their own. They are a sturdy, vigorous, agricultural folk, who love to wear the clothes they make themselves and despise the flimsy fabrics of the Western countries. Altruism is the keynote of the Serb state.



SERVIAN SENTINELS IN THE SNOW

# PROGRESSIVISM, TRUE AND FALSE—AN OUTLINE

BY RICHARD T. ELY

[Professor Richard T. Ely has for more than thirty years been one of the leaders of economic and political thought in the United States. Returning from studies in Germany under the foremost economists of the last quarter of the nineteenth century, he began his career as head of the department of political economy in the Johns Hopkins University in 1881, where he remained until 1892, since which time he has been at the head of the department of economics in the University of Wisconsin. We reviewed extensively last month his new work entitled "Property and Contract." We are permitted to publish herewith certain notes, in tentative and outline form, which sum up many of Dr. Ely's views and conclusions regarding further lines of necessary political and social progress in this country. We have preferred to use this outline just as it was rapidly sketched; and it will be none the less interesting to our readers when we remark incidentally that it was made the basis of an afternoon's conversation last month between Professor Ely and Colonel Roosevelt.—THE EDITOR.]

(1) *As population grows social ties increase in significance.* The experience of the world shows that social evolution carries with it necessarily an enlargement of the tasks devolving upon the governments of all grades, — town, county, city, State, and nation. Without exception all progressive platforms recognize this.

The work of government daily becomes more and more a common affair, more and more coöperative in its nature as it serves us in an increasing number of directions; but likewise it becomes daily more complex and difficult. The great present social need is to attract to the public service men strong in character, intellect, and training.

We must see to it that public work, like private work, should offer an adequate field for strong and ambitious men.

The public service must offer a career or we must be poorly served. The civil service must generally be put on the same footing as

the professorships in State universities in this and other countries. Men must be encouraged to prepare for work in administration by long and careful study and training, and must be rewarded by permanent positions with honor for distinguished service.

To be a proper mayor or manager of the affairs of a great city is even more difficult than to be president of a great railway company, and requires years of study and apprenticeship. In no other way is good government a possibility. As a people we are far from grasping this truth with its implications. Even in progressive Wisconsin, men are appointed members of the Railroad Commission and of other commissions, requiring expert services, for periods of years; whereas, like professors in the university, they should be appointed on good behavior.

Our present system gives us a government of lawyers to an extent known in no other civilized land, and very largely a govern-

## WATCHWORDS

*A war, not a battle.*

*Our task: To fit political institutions to complex economic society.*

*Representative government.*

*A career in the service of the people.*

*Let the people choose the determiners of policy; let the best talent procurable find a career in the service of the people equal to that afforded by private business.*

*Positive and attractive measures to encourage excellence in legislation and administration; negative and repressive measures to be subsidiary. Protests and muckraking in private and public life to be pushed into the background.*

*We must develop democratic sources of honor and stimulate excellence.*

*"There is no greater inequality than the equal treatment of unequals."*



ment of second- and third-rate lawyers. Lawyers can best take up and lay down public office, but even lawyers of the first rank take office at a personal loss. Inferior lawyers get larger incomes in office than in practice, and frequently win new clients.

(2) *Representative government, therefore, to be preferred to direct legislation. The "Initiative" and "Referendum" suitable only to a primitive rural democracy.*

(3) *Legislation and administration must be sharply separated.* If this separation is made and the administration affords careers, the people have increased power; for then they will really choose the determiners of policy. Having comparatively few to vote for on a *short ballot*, they will be in a position to choose wisely. When we vote at the same time for forty—possible fifty and more—men, it is impossible to make wise selections. Under such circumstances we must in one way or another let others choose for us; and we give scope to the politician, whereas our aim must be to give scope to the wise administrator and statesman.

The legislative bodies are to contain representatives of the people and should comprise men of all positions. They determine policies and contrive laws and institutions. The people must be served by the most highly trained and able men who can be attracted to the civil service. "Civil servant" must be a term of honor.

(4) We talk nowadays much about *efficiency in public business*, and more efficiency is a crying need; but too often those who talk glibly about efficiency do not grasp the deeper underlying causes of excellence in administration.

To those who watch the work of the departments at Washington the marvel is that so many men work so well and so faithfully as they do,—year in and year out,—largely anonymously on small salaries, with no special reward or recognition for excellence, tied down frequently by petty rules.

No other civilized country can exhibit such mismanagement. Elsewhere there is, as in a university, someone to watch for excellence and to reward it. Titles may be laughed at, but they have a power as recognition when wisely bestowed. Universities give degrees and award honors. In monarchical countries the king is the source of honors. We must build up democratic institutions which shall be sources of honor.

A laurel wreath may prove a greater stimulus in social service than a monetary reward of thousands of dollars.

Mechanical tests of efficiency and time-clocks will never produce great leaders of men. We have had investigations, surveys, probes, muck-raking *ad nauseam*. The time has come for positive, constructive, encouraging methods. Don't,—don't,—don't, has been the method of repression. We must now say to good and faithful servants: "Thank you. You have rendered excellent service. We are proud of you. Accept our rewards and our praise."

Lester F. Ward, the father of American sociology, long ago pointed out the distinction between repressive and attractive legislation. In legislation and administration alike we need methods of attraction.

We have made slight beginnings. The University of Wisconsin awards certificates to farmers who have done specially meritorious work along agricultural lines, and these diplomas, without pecuniary value, practically costless, are highly prized, and justly so; and serve as a stimulus.

(5) *The "Recall," therefore, condemned.*

(6) *Homes for the People.* All efforts to promote the ownership of homes, both in the country and in the city, must be encouraged. We want a noble race of yeomen farmers, to use the good old English term, and not a race of dependent tenant farmers. In the city likewise the freehold must be the aim. Full landed property binds men to their country with ties of affection and makes good citizens. The owner of a farm in the country and the owner of a home in the city, though of modest fortunes, have a real stake in their country. The freehold must be our motto, and we must encourage all private and public efforts to keep America a land of home- and farm-owners.

(7) *Development of social insurance, pensions for old age, etc.*

(8) *National Defense.* Universal preparation should be made for national defense. As in New Zealand and Australia, all boys should begin at twelve and continue drilling until twenty-five, and then go to the reserve. Preparation must be a part of universal education, and women should have analogous training (nursing, etc.). It must be a part of citizenship. No man is a worthy citizen who is not prepared to defend his country.

The moral effect of taking boys off street corners and out of saloons and of drilling them is excellent, while the economic effects are likewise beneficial.

Notice, what is here proposed is not taking people out of civil life, but making military training subsidiary to that, as in the colonies named. Boys and men can be drilled in afternoons and evenings, for the most part utilizing time that would otherwise too often be spent in loafing.

(9) *The social idea of contract in respect of labor legislation* is to be made the controlling force in the development of the police power. It has also to be recognized that there is, as has been wisely said, "no greater inequality than the equal treatment of unequals."

This means that lawmakers and courts alike must recognize the coercion of economic forces, revealing themselves in equalities in free contract. Whenever practises like payment in kind (such as company stores), or exclusive weighing of coal at the mine by the employer, work injustice or provoke gross discontent, they should without hesitation be prohibited.

(10) *High wages and as short a day as practicable are to be desired.* But a large product is also desirable, and must not be sacrificed. And wage-earners must give honest work for honest pay. A full equivalent, *i. e.*, full services, are requisite from both sides. We must not coddle labor: a nation of "slackers" is not desired. Discipline of life is needed. Child labor is an evil; but child idleness is a greater one.

(11) *The problem of unemployment is a grave one*, and we must have progressive solutions. But notice, "solutions," not "solution." There is no one remedy. The civil service should be developed in harmony with this end, and likewise private employment should be considered from this point of view.

(12) *Trusts and Big Business.* On the one hand we need social control of competition and prevention of needless monopoly, and, on the other hand, social control of monopoly. What the field of monopoly is we cannot fully tell until we develop much farther than at present the principles of fair and unfair competition.

We are already moving along right lines in our State Railroad Commissions and in our Interstate Commerce Commission and the new Federal Trade Commission. Busi-

ness should not be repressed simply because it is big, and no arbitrary limitations, should be set to private accumulations.

(13) *Tax Program and Wealth Diffusion.* It is well worth our while to study efforts, like those in New Zealand, to bring about wealth diffusion, not merely by taxation of incomes and inherited property, but by laws regulating the inheritance of property, such as those in France, which compel the distribution of the bulk of a man's property among his children. Trusteeships of estates have already reached menacing dimensions in the United States. The New Zealand laws, which limit the amount of landed property one individual may hold, and tax at a progressive rate landed property, deserve consideration. The laws there promote wealth diffusion, while at the same time they are not sufficiently radical to discourage initiative and enterprise.

(14) In connection with "*Conservation*," careful progress along lines already laid down is desirable. We need a development of an American land policy, with a satisfactory balance between public and private property.

(15) *The ballot is to be regarded as a privilege and a duty, and not a natural right.* In every way it should be made to appear as a prize. Faint beginnings have already been made in this direction, for in various places foreigners have been admitted to citizenship with impressive ceremonies. Judges are becoming stricter in admission to citizenship. Local boards might well be empowered to drop those who are to be regarded as absolutely unfit for citizenship,—habitual criminals and paupers, and all others below certain lower limits of morality and intelligence. With the ballot elevated and made a prize, women should be admitted to the suffrage along with men wherever they desire it. Conditions are radically different in our various States. Compare, for example, Wisconsin, Louisiana, Maine, and Alabama. So far as the Federal Constitution permits, each State should decide the conditions upon which people should be admitted to the ballot.

(16) *The crown of the whole progressive platform must be education.* This should be extended and improved and adapted to modern conditions. America should take as much pains to prepare her youth for independent economic existence as Germany takes to make her young men efficient soldiers.



# REFORMING THE INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM

BY EDWIN S. POTTER

[Mr. Potter is associate editor of *Equity*,—a magazine devoted to "improved methods of self-government," conducted mainly through the public-spirited efforts of Dr. Charles Fremont Taylor. Mr. Potter has devoted his entire time to the initiative and referendum movement, and has made himself an authority upon the subject. His article will be the more interesting in view of the fact that Dr. Ely, in the preceding article, condemns the initiative and referendum as unsuited to the government of societies as populous and complex as our American States.—THE EDITOR.]

THE "gun behind the door" is actually resting on its constitutional pegs, in some sort of order, in nineteen States of this nation, in the form of a constitutional amendment defining and guaranteeing to the voters the right and opportunity for final, direct control of any act of their elected representatives, through the processes universally known as the initiative and referendum. The recall of elected officials, also, is now authorized in eight States. These processes, furthermore, have been incorporated in the charters of over 350 cities. In the total of nineteen States are included North Dakota, which adopted an initiative and referendum amendment on November 3, 1914, and New Mexico, which has the referendum only.

Every true friend of popular government is watching closely how this "gun" works, with a view to improving its mechanism and protecting it from misuse of any kind.

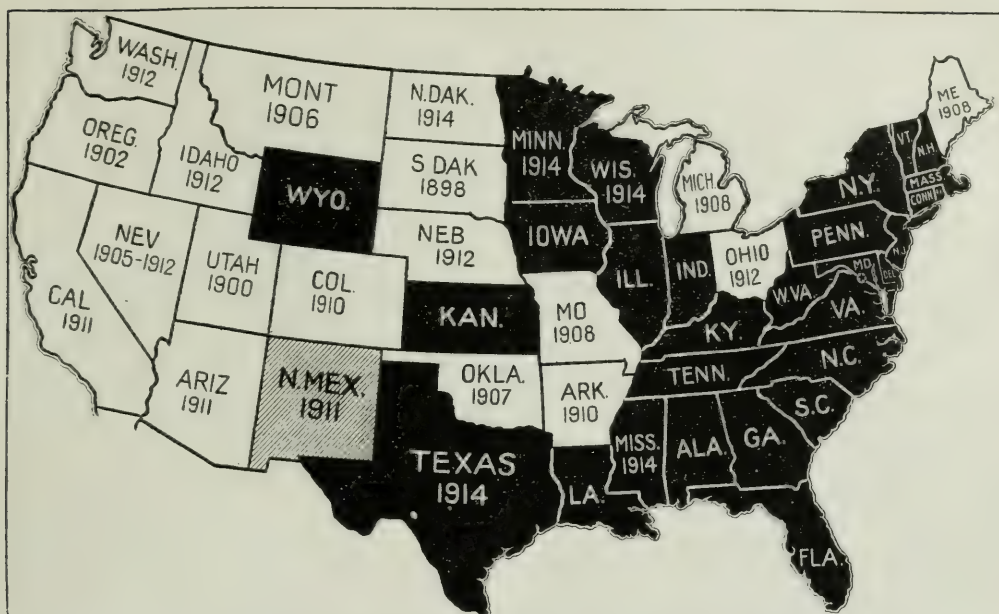
In some form these processes for final direct control of government by the voters are certain to be adopted by all of the States, as well as by county and city governments, and ultimately without doubt by the national government for certain supreme emergencies, such for instance as a declaration of war, a tariff program, prohibition, suffrage or public operation of public utilities like the telegraph, telephone and railroad services. In many States the old party leaders no longer oppose the initiative and referendum in name, but openly advocate some nominal concession of popular control worded so as to be harmless to the big interests, such as the amendment that was rejected by the voters of Texas on November 3, last. The opposition now largely takes the form of efforts to emasculate existing initiative and referendum laws or to cause the submission of amendments so hobbled with "jokers" as to be worthless.

But I believe that no real friend of direct control will assert that the process for its expression in any State or subdivision as yet has been perfected. Dr. John R. Haynes, of Los Angeles, since the last election, when the California ballot was the vehicle for forty-eight submissions of measures, has published an article on "Abuses of Direct Legislation and the Remedies" (*Los Angeles Outlook* of December 5), in which while pointing out the abuses and the remedies, he declares that the system has proven successful there beyond the fondest hopes of its advocates and that the people have displayed wonderful discrimination in their use of the instrument.

In the course of the past year or so a number of attempts have been made to improve the working of the system of direct control of legislation by the people. It is the purpose of this writing to summarize very briefly these various plans or suggestions so that thoughtful people may know what is being done or contemplated in this direction.

## THE MASSACHUSETTS PLAN

On June 25, 1914, the Massachusetts legislature voted, 141 to 85, in favor of submitting to the voters an initiative and referendum amendment to the State constitution containing several novel and hopeful features,—hopeful in that they look toward a more convincing method through which the principle of popular control might operate. The majority on that proposal lacked a few votes of the necessary two-thirds required on constitutional amendments and so was lost for that session. I am informed by one prominent in the group of Massachusetts advocates of the amendment that it is to be brought before the present legislature with still further improvements.



AN INITIATIVE-AND-REFERENDUM MAP OF THE UNITED STATES

(In the white territory, initiative and referendum laws have been adopted. The shaded State [New Mexico] has the referendum only. Minnesota, Wisconsin, Texas, and Mississippi rejected the initiative and referendum at the last election. Maryland is to vote on the referendum in 1915, and Iowa in 1916, provided the amendment passed at the last session shall be again approved by the present legislature. The "recall" has been adopted in California, Oregon, Nevada, Idaho, Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, and Louisiana.)

The distinguishing feature of this amendment, now generally known as the "Massachusetts plan," is that it makes provision for the amendment of any initiated measure by the legislature after public hearings and in cooperation with a committee of the proposers, also for the submission of an initiated statute to the formal opinion of the State supreme court as to its constitutionality. But if such a statute were found by the court to be unconstitutional, and the proposers still believed that a majority of the people wanted it and would sustain it, if submitted at the polls, it would be possible and in order first to compel the submission of an amendment to the constitution such as would make the desired legislation valid. To do that would require the signatures of 50,000 voters to petitions stating the proposed amendment. In order to initiate a proposed statute, under this plan, would require petitions signed by 25,000 voters.

The method of getting a petition for any measure started is also distinctive of this plan. Five voters would have the privilege of first proposing a measure and on their demand the Secretary of State would have to furnish forms of petition to be circulated among the voters. Once the requisite number of signatures are obtained and duly accepted by the

Secretary of State, the measure must be considered by the legislature, which may pass the bill as offered or "With such amendments as the committee of proposers may assent to." But if no action is taken satisfactory to the proposers, then the Secretary of State submits the proposed measure to the Supreme Court.

In general, this plan leaves the whole machinery of the existing government almost unchanged, including the method of introduction of bills, public hearings and the veto power of the governor. The belief of those favoring this plan is that it will prevent the submission of either crude or unconstitutional measures to the electorate.

#### SAFEGUARDING THE PETITIONS

"Government by petition" has been one of the pet jibes hurled at the advocates of the direct control. Nor was the implication without some serious justification. Very early in the history of the movement in this country the best friends of the system foresaw that one of its danger spots would be the ease with which designing persons or powerful corporate interests might pervert the system by causing the petitions for measures to be signed through bribes or to be so improperly signed with dummy names or



otherwise improperly circulated that the whole procedure would be thrown into court litigation, perhaps at the critical part of an election campaign. This sort of thing has actually occurred in several States so as to interfere with the orderly process of the system, notably in Ohio, California, and Washington. In Ohio the direct consequence was the adoption of quite an elaborate scheme of legislation at the extra session of the legislature last year under the guiding hand of Governor Cox, all for the purpose of safeguarding the all-important popular petition.

In the first place, the whole machinery for the operation of the initiative and referendum was placed under the Corrupt Practices act so as to make any person liable to criminal prosecution who misrepresents the contents of a petition. A penalty of \$500 fine and a five-year prison sentence are authorized for the mutilation or stealing of a petition and the misstatement of a petition is made perjury under the law with a ten-year prison sentence attached. Besides all this, circulators of petitions are required to file with the Secretary of State sworn statements showing in detail the time and money spent in this work.

#### LEGISLATORS AS PETITION SIGNERS

The idea of recognizing the representative character of the elected members of a legislature in the signing of initiative and referendum petitions was incorporated in the amendment brought forward in Maryland by Senator Ogden, of Baltimore, last year. Although the plan was cut out of the amendment before the final passage of the referendum section, the initiative not being retained, this legislative formulation of the idea made a distinct contribution to the subject of possible improvements of the direct processes, and one worthy of careful consideration by the friends of popular government.

According to this provision in the Ogden bill, members of the general assembly might sign initiative or referendum petitions and have their signatures count for a certain numerical equivalent of the voters represented by the members so signing. That is, if a majority of the members of both houses should sign an initiative or referendum petition, such signatures duly attested would be sufficient to complete the petition and require the submission of the proposition to the voters at the next regular election. Also, if a majority of the members of either house should sign such a petition, those signatures would be held to be equivalent to half the

number of voters' signatures required for a submission, namely, 10,000.

In case of a proposed amendment, the signatures of three-fifths of the members of both houses of the legislature would be held sufficient to complete a petition and compel the submission of the proposition to the voters of the State, and the signatures of three-fifths of either house would be regarded as half the number required for a submission. But if less than three-fifths of either house should sign, the signature of each would be equivalent to a number found by dividing the number equal to three-fifths of that house into half the number of signatures of voters required to compel a submission of the proposed amendment, namely, 12,000.

#### RADICAL EXPERIMENTS PROPOSED

By a successful appeal to the voters of Arizona at the last election (November 3), one important change in the initiative and referendum amendment of that State was actually carried into effect. That is an amendment designed to prevent either the legislature or the governor from ever exerting the veto power against any act that shall have received a favorable majority at the polls. The organized labor forces of Arkansas have just formulated a complete substitute for the existing direct control system. The new point of greatest moment here is the proposal to limit the power of the State Supreme Court by a clause which would provide that no measure approved by a majority of the voters may be amended or repealed by the legislature or be set aside as being unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. Another important proposal in this substitute is to make the emergency clause of a bill more difficult of operation by requiring a three-fourths vote of all the members of both houses to declare a measure to be an emergency and therefore not at once subject to being held up by a referendum petition. Also it would be necessary to state the facts constituting the emergency. This Arkansas scheme would fix the number of voters necessary to invoke the initiative at 10,000 and the number for the referendum at 7000. No limit would be placed on the number of measures that might be submitted at one election.

#### TRYING TO IMPROVE THE BALLOT

Since the last election, a movement has been started in Missouri looking to improvement in the wording of the propositions on the ballots. In that State, as in some others,

the practise has been to print on each ballot the full text of every measure submitted, with all the legal circumlocution with which the lawyers insist on cluttering those enactments. The fifteen measures submitted at the last election in Missouri, printed in fine type, filled a sheet as large as two ordinary daily newspaper pages. To the utterly impossible character of this blanket ballot is attributed in large measure the long succession of negative decisions on measures submitted in that State since the direct process came into being there in 1908. Now a number of influential papers and civic organizations have undertaken to have substituted for all this legal lumber a short-sentenced, clear and condensed statement of the gist of each measure on the ballots. Some also are advocating the submission of measures at special elections. Another novel suggestion put forth by the *Kansas City Star*, is that a plan be worked out whereby voters might send in their marked ballots by mail.

#### REFORMS BY "FATHER OF THE RECALL"

In California the next legislature is expected to amend the I. and R. law so as to provide against abuses and among various suggestions advanced by conservative papers are: Increase in the percentages of signa-

tures to petitions, prohibiting the use of paid circulators of petitions, requiring voters to sign in some official place and requiring the geographical distribution of signers over the State. But all of these proposals are rejected by Dr. Haynes, the "father of the recall," as being both inefficient and vicious. He argues that the prohibition of paid circulators of petitions would handicap the efforts of poor but honest people to bring about reforms and would not bother those powerful corporate interests, which can use their own forces and other advertising channels. The central signing place would also hinder the reform forces, but would little interfere with the work of the interests.

Dr. Haynes would keep these measures free from fettering restrictions so that they may be used by the plain people.

In addition to the penal provisions against fraud, Dr. Haynes would have every petition contain a title stating the general purpose and an epitome of not more than 200 words giving the substance of the measure. Then he would increase the efficiency of the legislative reference bureaus in the States having the direct process. Voters' handbooks with text of measures and arguments, pro and con, should be in hands of voters at least thirty days before election.

# THE WAR AGAINST THE SALOON

BY FERDINAND COWLE IGLEHART

[Dr. Iglehart is the New York City Superintendent of the Anti-Saloon League. He writes with intimate knowledge of the prohibition movement in all its phases, acquired through life-long labors for the cause. Many of our readers know him as an eloquent preacher and lecturer, and will recall his articles in this REVIEW at the time of the recent prohibition wave in the South.—THE EDITOR.]

**T**O many persons, the most significant moral and political event of a generation was the majority vote given to the National Constitutional Prohibition bill in the House of Representatives on December 22. The proposed amendment, calling for nationwide prohibition, failed to receive the required two-thirds majority, but it obtained 197 affirmative votes to 189 cast against it. This was a noteworthy event, since it marked the highest point yet reached, in this country, in the long crusade against the sale and use of intoxicating liquors.

Sixty years ago nine Northern States went

"dry" in a single year. Most of them soon lapsed into license, and up to 1907, out of eighteen that had tried the experiment only three,—Maine, Kansas, and North Dakota,—retained prohibition.

Then seven Southern States came into the prohibition column, in the following order: Georgia in 1907; Oklahoma, Alabama, Mississippi and North Carolina in 1908; Tennessee in 1909; and West Virginia in 1912. All of these States have remained "dry" but Alabama; and last month Alabama seemed certain to become "dry" again by overwhelming vote of the Legislature.



In the autumn of 1914, seven States voted on the subject. Five of them adopted prohibition, and only two,—California and Ohio,—retained license. Virginia went "dry" in September by 35,000 majority, every city but three voting "no license," and the four Western States of Arizona, Colorado, Oregon, and Washington voted in favor of prohibition.

The action of Arizona was a surprise, as hardly more than a fifth of the population were under local no-license laws. There was harmony between the temperance forces, however, as well as organization and intense activity. The women's votes were potential in the result.

The pronounced victory of the anti-saloon forces in Colorado was brought about by complete organization and persistent newspaper advertising. The violence in the strike zone had its influence, and the revival meetings of "Billy" Sunday, then in Colorado, made many prohibition votes. Here, also, as well as in Arizona, the women voters contributed much to the victory.

In Oregon all but two counties voted for prohibition, and Portland, a city of 250,000, went "dry" by a majority of 1832. Every voter was personally seen. The pastors and members of the churches turned the State into an organized political camp. The "woman vote" in Oregon was disappointing, although a majority of women probably voted for prohibition.

Prohibition won in Washington by a majority of 18,632, carrying all but six counties. Man-to-man work, with literature, was the method, instead of mass-meetings. The women divided about as the men did; they were not as dominant as in Colorado and Arizona.

In California the radical temperance people proposed too drastic a measure, and it was rejected by a majority of 130,000. The liquor people failed in their efforts to adopt a companion measure forbidding prohibition legislation for eight years.

Under the Initiative and Referendum in Ohio, a new unit of voting was introduced; and the Home Rule amendment favored by the liquor interests carried over the prohibition amendment of the temperance people. Next year the battle will be fought over again, and the Anti-Saloon League workers claim that they will then carry their measure.

The people of Idaho, South Carolina, Florida, and Iowa vote on the question this year or next, and will likely declare for prohibition.

The majority vote cast by the national

lawmakers at Washington, in favor of nationwide prohibition, emphasizes the widespread hatred of the saloon. It expresses the rebuke of millions of the voters of this country, who believe there has been persistent interference with and corruption of American politics by the brewers' and distillers' associations,—the first and worst of all the trusts. The people more and more are saying that this thing shall end.

The action at Washington measures the united moral forces of the nation against what they count its greatest evil. These moral forces, the churches and temperance organizations, have been federated and led by the Anti-Saloon League. Although only twenty-one years old, this organization has an army of 800 men constantly in the field, with 40,000 pulpits of all denominations open to its representatives each year for an address and subscription requests, and with \$1,500,000, donated annually to its campaign fund. It has stood for prohibition through local option from smaller to greater units, and for a non-partisan warfare on the traffic. It originated this National Constitutional Prohibition bill. The Woman's Christian Temperance Union united in asking for and in working for the passage of the measure, and the churches and temperance organizations supported it enthusiastically.

Senator Morris Sheppard, of Texas, will press the companion bill in the Senate at the next session of Congress. The question will be an important factor in the election of 1916. The campaign will be kept up until the two-thirds majority shall have been secured,—by 1917, the leaders of the movement hope, or certainly by 1920, at which time the thirty-six States will be ready for ratification. Russia going "dry" by imperial proclamation, and hostility to drink as a general war measure, will hasten the passage of this national law.

It is likely that a number of laws requiring a majority vote will be passed soon, including another amendment to the Interstate Commerce law, forbidding the transfer of liquor from "wet" into "dry" territory for beverage purposes. The earlier amendment,—the Webb-Kenyon law, which was passed over President Taft's veto, in 1913,—only prevents the transfer of intoxicants from "wet" into "dry" territory for purposes of sale. A law will probably be passed for making the District of Columbia "dry." The Jones-Works bill recently passed has destroyed more than one-third of the saloons of Washington City.

# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## LEGAL VERSUS MORAL NEUTRALITY

**A**N earnest discussion of our obligations as a neutral nation in the present war is contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly* for February by the eminent New York lawyer, Paul Fuller. The first portion of the article is given up to a statement of the true significance of neutrality in international law as set forth by various publicists of many nationalities, and it is the writer's conclusion that in determining our attitude as a neutral the final appeal must be to public opinion. He demands that the action of Germany at the outbreak of the war in violating Belgium's neutrality be put to this test. As to all the other questions that have arisen during the war he is quite willing to concede that judgment must be held in abeyance. "But the very act by which war was begun,—the deliberate, premeditated invasion of a neutral country, which international law, as established for more than a century, regardless of special conventions, made safe from attack by any civilized country,—needs no investigation, admits of no doubt, and has not even elicited a denial from the culprit which is the main belligerent in the wars of to-day in Europe."

Under these circumstances, asks Mr. Fuller, can the American people translate neutrality into indifference? "While strictly conforming to the international code, which does not permit them to assist in the prosecution of the war, can they divest themselves of all moral sense and give even the tacit approval of silence to the massacre of Belgium?"

Recalling President Wilson's appeal to his fellow countrymen "to act and speak in the true spirit of friendliness to all concerned and to be impartial in thought as well as in action," Mr. Fuller declares that the earnest and honest endeavor to comply with this hard requisite attests the respect which the Chief Magistrate has earned from his fellow citizens. "But the difficulty, not to say the impossibility of the task which he has thus put upon them, is a severe test of the preser-

vation of the influence which he has heretofore gained. Every day shows compliance with his request to be an impossibility. Every day of repression simply concentrates the unexpressed sentiment and forbodes an explosion."

Mr. Fuller appeals to the President to look over the field again and to take heed of the general sentiment that prevails on the violation of Belgium's neutrality:

There still may be differences of opinion as to whether universal civilization and political advancement are best to be served by the European hegemony of a vast military organization which has cast into the shadow all the spiritual and intellectual elements of its own race, or by the unimpeded progress of such democracy and representative government as rules in England or in France; but he will find throughout the breadth of the land no apology, no tolerance for the initial act of tyrannical assault by which the war was initiated, and the territory of Belgium made the unwilling field of the most devastating war of all time.

Mr. Fuller appeals to the President to consult that public opinion which he has heretofore faithfully represented, "to find some way which his acumen, his large experience, and his humanitarian spirit can devise, without infringing upon the international rights which we are all anxious to respect and recognize, in which to speak in the name of the American people some word of dissent from, if not of reprobation of, the violation of international law for which Germany has no other plea than that 'necessity knows no law.'"

Mr. Fuller cites in support of his appeal the words of Count Bernstorff, the Prussian Ambassador to Great Britain in 1870:

It is impossible for the human mind not to side with one or the other party in a conflict like the present one. What is the use of being right or wrong in the eyes of the world, if the public remains insensible to the merits of a cause? Those who deny the necessity of such a distinction forego the appeal to public opinion, which we are daily taught to consider as the foremost of the great powers.



## SWITZERLAND'S RÔLE

HAS the little Swiss Republic any rôle to play in the present European war? A Swiss writer, Virgile Rossel, writing in the *Bibliothèque Universelle*, of Lausanne, thinks it has. This rôle, however, does not consist in adding fuel to the fire. The duty of Switzerland, he thinks, should be to preserve a neutrality that is expressed by the sentiment *noblesse oblige*. He says:

We may well question whether our press and public opinion have not accepted with too much readiness the glaring exaggerations, the audacious falsehoods, the hypocritical expressions of indignation which the telegraph and the literature of the belligerents pour daily over our frontiers. It is also to be regretted that our instinctive sympathies are divided. We at least ought to have manifested an absolute unanimity with regard to events that have by this time become history. We might profitably ponder the words of Romain Rolland, the author of "Jean Christophe," who says: "It would seem to me that there is better work to do for those who write, than that of brandishing the bloody pen and crying 'Kill! Kill!' . . . On either side unbelievable stories are sown broadcast, spread by an unscrupulous press, which would have us believe that the most elementary laws of humanity are being trampled under foot by the combatants. . . . All this is false. The cruelties and monstrous deeds perpetrated by individuals do not justify general condemnation. Until I see them with my own eyes, I will not believe in the accounts of Belgian women putting out the enemy's eyes, of Prussian and Bavarian wounded soldiers being "finished" by the French, or the stories of severed hands by German soldiers or organized theft by the chiefs of the imperial army. Over all such unsubstantiated news our

press should exercise a relentless censorship. Later when the passions have cooled down, and irrefutable proofs have been advanced, the universal conscience will render its verdict. For the present the first duty of the neutral states is to refrain from joining in the furious accusations of the combatants and to refuse to be their echo. One demands only the exercise of a little critical sense to prevent the diffusion of groundless and stupid, even criminal information, which is thrown indiscriminately as food to overwrought minds. These are the inexhaustible source of injustice, besides helping to widen the breach already open between opposed races and cultures.

This, says M. Rossel, does not mean that we should not pass judgment, with moderation and discrimination, upon such acts and proceedings as constitute direct attempts against the intellectual and moral patrimony of humanity. But, above all things, we must, he insists, be of one mind. "If our notions of what constitute right and wrong should differ, we would no longer possess a Swiss spirit, and we would cease to deserve to be, among the torn nations of Europe, the haven of peace and quiet labor that we are."

If we are true to these principles, he says in conclusion, the time may come when the Switzerland which had proved herself impartial and conciliatory might, after the clash of arms has ceased, hold out the olive branch of peace to the belligerents, which these might not refuse to accept from her friendly hands.

## SCANDINAVIA AND THE WAR

MR. EDWIN BJÖRKMAN, who contributes to this number of the REVIEW an article on the neutrality of the Scandinavian countries, was last summer granted a fellowship by the American Scandinavian Foundation. He sailed from New York late in July and arrived in London the day the British ultimatum to Germany expired, and after spending some time in the British capital, sailed for Bergen by way of Newcastle. He passed several weeks in Norway and Sweden and then made a journey to Copenhagen, whence he returned to Stockholm. Mr. Björkman is the translator and editor in English of Ibsen, Strindberg, and Björnson, and has written much concerning general Scandinavian literature. Himself a native of Sweden, he is thoroughly acquainted with the three countries. In the London

*Morning Post* for October 22 and 28 Mr. Björkman gives a survey of the position of each of the Scandinavian countries in relation to neutrality in the present war.

Mr. Björkman points out that not only does Denmark belong geographically to the continent rather than to the Scandinavian peninsula, but that culturally also Denmark has always been close to Germany, and the economic community of interest between the two countries has been steadily increasing. Yet he shows that Denmark is thoroughly distrustful of Germany and cannot forget the taking of Schleswig-Holstein half a century ago. On the other hand, Denmark has been drawn more and more towards England, partly because England is one of Denmark's best markets, but also of Denmark's realization that England, more than any great pow-

er, has an interest in protecting a country which may be said to hold the key of the Baltic and one of the main keys to the North Sea. Furthermore, Denmark has established friendly relations with Russia. Danish sympathies are with the Allies rather than with Germany, but the country is determined to preserve its neutrality and has been more fearful of England's trying to establish a naval base on Danish ground than of any incursion from Germany.

Mr. Björkman sums up the situation in Norway by saying that the Norwegians do not want to fight anybody, and would be particularly chagrined at having to fight for Germany against the English. Their sympathies are beyond all doubt with the Allies. Norway has probably more in common with England than any other of the Scandinavian countries. Like Denmark, she would look to England for support in time of need. Although the union with Sweden was dissolved in 1905, and the relationship between the two nations became badly strained, they have now come to complete agreement, apparently, so far as neutrality in the present crisis is concerned.

Of the three Scandinavian peoples, Mr. Björkman finds that there is more pro-German sentiment among the Swedes than in either Denmark or Norway, although he believes that these sympathies imply no animosity towards England, and, in fact, are joined

with a great deal of genuine love for France. The key to the situation, he says, is simply that Sweden does not love Germany so much as she fears, and, for that reason, hates Russia. The geographical position of Sweden largely explains this state of mind. Sweden lost Finland to Russia in 1809 after the countries had been at war for more than two centuries. Although the Finns have neither race nor language in common with the Swedes, Finland has been an integral part of Sweden, and to this day there remains in Finland a Swedish-speaking population of about 250,000. A Russian menace to Sweden was suggested by the violent Russian attacks on Finnish nationalism, the massing of Russian troops in Finland, the revelation of Russian espionage within Sweden and the building of railways through Finland to the common border in the extreme north.

Freedom to pursue their own course within their own country is all that the Swedes care for. Swedes will be neutral until by open infringement of their rights they are compelled to take up arms. They will be friendly with every nation that leaves them alone,—even Russia. They are looking for no expansion of their territory. They do not fear a practically free Finland tied to Russia by bounds of affection. They do fear a harassed and oppressed Finland that may be prepared as a tool against themselves.

## THE EUROPEAN WAR AS AN EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

THERE are, or were, German scholars engaged in editing three or four serious journals in the intervals of other exacting professional employments, but there is only one such American, Cattell.

The initial number of *School and Society*, a weekly publication which aims to become "the professional journal for those engaged in the work of our lower and higher schools, and to be of interest to the wider public for whom education is of vital concern," made its appearance on January 2, under the editorship of Dr. J. McKeen Cattell, who, in addition to teaching psychology in Columbia University, edits the weekly *Science*, the *Popular Science Monthly*, the monthly *American Naturalist*, and the scientific-biological "American Men of Science," of which a third edition is now in preparation. The new journal, the only weekly publica-

tion of its kind in the world, will "emphasize the relations of education to the social order," as well as several other things, for which *vide* the prospectus.

Under the title "Teaching the War" the president of Clark University, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, contributes to the first issue of the above-mentioned journal an analysis of the attitude thus far taken by school authorities throughout the country toward the question of giving instruction on current war topics, and presents his own views as to how teachers can "turn to pedagogic use the sudden flood of palpitating interest" which the great European struggle has awakened.

First, what are we doing? An inquiry by a student of mine not yet complete has already shown us that out of 109 representative cities in the country in 39 different States, 87 teach the war, some intensively, while only 22 do not yet.



Two even forbid all allusion to it and have dropped not only current events but all European geography and history, although it hardly need be said that the most timid localities are where politics most dominate education. Of 12 States 8 have decreed for teaching (and 4 against). Some cities spend from ten to thirty minutes daily teaching the war, from the fourth grade of the grammar up through the high school, while from twenty minutes to an hour a week is more common.

Several more or less plausible reasons for not teaching the war have been advanced by the authorities in places where it is excluded; but

it is significant that out of our 109 cities not one of the 87 cities which now teach the war has found this course criticized by the parents of the children of any nationality, while there has often been a storm of protest against the timid and purblind pedagogy which excludes it.

On the other hand, the reasons given in the 8 States and 87 cities that do teach it may be roughly summed up as follows:

First, it is a great vitalizer of geography, and to bring and show maps of the positions of the armies and of the countries involved, with places that come to a focus of interest from day to day, is capable of impressing a very wide vital interest in geography.

Second, we have a chance to see history in the making. Historic tendencies from many centuries are focusing to and will diverge from this momentous epoch, in which history is made day by day more rapidly than ever before. We can thus now see not only history but political geography in the making.

Third, in the higher school grades innumerable questions of economics, trade, market, effects on various industries, social, civic and political organization of the countries involved, and some

even add about all topics in the school, can be given in a high degree of vitalization.

Fourth, it is the greatest opportunity ever afforded to impress upon the minds of children, without distinction of parties, the barbarity, destructiveness and brutality of war and the blessings of peace.

Fifth, it gives a large surface of contact between the school and life, which tend so strongly to be isolated from each other, so the children leave their souls behind them when they enter school. Considering the interest of every live boy in conflict, the war is a dynamo of educational energy which should make the entire school system vastly more effective while it lasts and perhaps for some time after.

Sixth, it makes young Americans citizens of the world, not only of the country, and teaches them the right appreciation of the relations of other lands to theirs.

Seventh and most often stressed of all, it teaches the great lesson of Americanism and toleration, and teaches the young to agree to differ, cultivates a judicial as above a partisan attitude, which is perhaps the very palladium of the strength of this country in the world, because here citizenship means outgrowing and rising above the old-world prejudice and racial animosities that have come down for centuries since the old religious wars, and which have made nations suspect and hate their neighbors, and gives us a wholesome realization that we have none of these old dangerous European chimneys in our political structure, liable at any moment to set fire to the whole.

The author proceeds to offer detailed suggestions as to profitable lines of instruction under each of the foregoing heads. His article should be of great interest, not only to those who are "teaching the war," but also to all who are engaged in "learning" it—i. e., Americans of all ages.

## HOW STORIES OF ATROCITIES ARE INVENTED

ONE of the lessons taught by the war is the general unreliability of newspaper accounts of atrocities committed by soldiers. As a rule they have been proved to be purely imaginative creations, part of that output which is the special contribution of war to literature. They are the product not only of war correspondents, but of all sorts of fiction writers and poets. It is a species of inventiveness of which no country can claim a monopoly, a pretty even balance of power being maintained among all the belligerent nations.

Sometimes the stories come from the neutral countries. The Berlin *Vorwaerts* records an interesting tale of terror which was hatched in our own New York. At the outbreak of the war a German poet, Hans

Heinz Ewers, happened to be visiting New York. Though far from the scene of hostilities, he was immediately inspired by the war muse and wrote a poem entitled "My Mother's House," which was published in German in a Berlin newspaper and in English in *The Fatherland*. The poem gives a touching picture of the way in which his mother's house has been converted into a hospital. In one room lies a youthful soldier amidst beautiful little bits of artistic objects collected from every part of the world. Alas! the youth cannot enjoy the beauty of his surroundings. The Belgians in Loucin, near Liège, have gouged out his eyes. Four other soldiers are in the dining-room, one of whom will never recover, having been struck by a dum-dum bullet. There

are sixteen wounded soldiers in the house of the poet's mother; every room is a chamber of horrors.

Upon reading the poem the editor of the Berlin *Vorwaerts* wrote to the correspondent of his paper in Düsseldorf, where Ewers' mother lives, to investigate the story. The following is the correspondent's report as translated by J. E. Koettgen in the New York *Call*:

In accordance with your request I have been to the house of Hans Heinz Ewers' mother, and am in a position to state that the old lady never had one or several soldiers in her home to care for, and especially none whose eyes had been gouged out. Ewers' mother is a kindly but frail old lady, full of motherly pride in her poet son. She explained to me that in consequence of the poem (I had not mentioned the poem to her) she had had many inquiries already, especially from Berlin. But the poem was merely a production of her son's imagination. It is true that she had written to her son about her visits to wounded soldiers in the hospitals, but not a word about gouged-out eyes. She herself knew of no such case from personal experience, and as to caring for wounded soldiers in her own home, to do that she had neither the physical strength, nor was she materially in a position to undertake such work. It was really touching to hear the old lady read the poem, which she did with such feeling and confidence as only a mother can who loves her son above everything else. I should therefore be very sorry for the little old lady if her son were punished in public for his unconscionable atrocity stories, as he really deserves.

He has not been punished, however, Koettgen adds. On the contrary, he is reported to have been appointed court poet and decorated with the iron cross of the first class.

On the other hand, we are told that the stories against the German soldiers rest upon an equally flimsy foundation. Houston Stewart Chamberlain, in an article called "Deutschland," scouts the idea that German soldiers are capable of committing atrocities.

What other nation, he asks, has expert authorities on art accompanying the armies to see to it that when a city is occupied its art treasures are properly taken care of? When Rheims fell these experts took the German soldiers through the cathedral, and the soldiers all crowded around them, eager to learn and to see. Could such men commit outrages on human beings or wantonly destroy works of art? The present charges against the German soldiers are as baseless as those that were current in the war of 1870, which, in the matter of spreading false reports, furnishes an exact parallel to what is taking place now. Concerning the conditions in that war, Chamberlain says, he can speak from the fulness of his experience, because he had lived in France before and immediately after the war.

It was everywhere the same story. I never met a single Frenchman who even intimated that he himself had suffered any cruelty, or even unnecessary harsh treatment, from the Germans. The residents of Versailles assured me that the German soldiery did not dare to misbehave there because it was the chief headquarters and the residence of the King. But in Normandy, they said, the Germans acted like fierce barbarians. It happened that I was connected with certain peasant families in Normandy. I inquired, and was informed that there were no atrocities there. They were fortunate. The army, operating under Manueffell, were a splendid lot of men, so perfectly disciplined that they did not dare to steal an egg. But in Alsace, I was told, the conditions must have been terrible. I happened to become acquainted with an Alsatian pastor, a rabid Germanophobe, but no liar. When I put the same question to him, he took out a sketch-book from a drawer and showed me a German infantry soldier of giant stature peeling potatoes in his kitchen; an Uhlan sitting on a stone bench in front of the door and with awkward tenderness feeding the bottle to an Infant; and other idyls of a similar nature. "*Quelle bonne pâte d'hommes!*" he exclaimed almost with pathos. "What kind-hearted men!" And then came the usual remark: "We were lucky, but in Orleannais it was terrible."

## ITALY'S FINANCIAL STATUS

THE difficult problem of adjusting the monetary system to meet the exigencies resulting from a world-war such as that now being fought out in Europe, is treated in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). The writer outlines what Italy's financial policy should be in this emergency, giving his views as follows:

The three essential factors of military preparation and of success in war are diplomacy, armaments, and finance. While all Italians believe that the government will utilize our neutrality for active and energetic military preparation,—which must be as thorough as possible, whatever the

cost,—it is indispensable that not less attention be given to the economic problems, but too much neglected by the Italian press, which should not be allowed to degenerate into a mere vehicle for disseminating war news.

The tragic events that are transpiring doubtless have a mighty and poignant interest for the general public; but those charged with the responsibility of our political relations, even with the exposition of these relations in the press, should earnestly consider that economic resources contribute largely to a country's life, prosperity and victory. Hence in time of war they must be all the more jealously guarded. Whatever course Italy should eventually choose, whether to remain



neutral or to enter the arena of war,—at as late a date as possible,—it is imperatively necessary that her financial and economic resources be much more thoroughly and systematically ordered than they are at present. The two principal objects to be attained are as follows:

1. To alleviate the consequences and the hurtful reactions of the present war, so as to lessen the economic ills while our neutrality is preserved, and to provide for a complete and satisfactory resumption of the normal order of things as soon as peace shall have been concluded.

2. To place the country in a position to support without undue strain an active policy, should this become absolutely essential for the maintenance of Italy's rights and interests.

Of the widespread moral and material unrest in Italy, and of the turn that country's affairs may take in the near future, especially should she abandon her neutrality, the writer says:

Very few among us believe that our land could embark in a war without undergoing grave financial and economic disturbances; it is enough for us to reflect upon what has already happened, even after our wise declaration of neutrality.

In any case, Italy has made a significant practical experiment at this time showing the advantages of a policy of currency expansion, advantages which can hardly be denied in good faith. Last July, when business was normal, no one was heard to complain of a shortage of small notes. The war breaks out in the first days of August, business slows up, and such notes, instead of being over-abundant, become so scarce as to obstruct the entire business machinery of the land. Dealings on a small scale, the payment of salaries, and all petty expenses are beset with such difficulties as to arouse general complaint. A fortnight later, the government issues a decree providing for an increase of the number of one and two lire notes, and before a single new bill has been emitted, small notes again come into circulation.

This is, in fact, the usual and praiseworthy expedient used by England in time of panic,

whether resulting from ordinary financial crises, or from war, namely, to authorize a practically unlimited issue of bank-notes, not in order to force them into circulation, but to produce the psychological effect necessary to check a panic, so that the number of new notes that really find their way into the hands of the people is much smaller than they would clamor for in case a limit on circulation were maintained.

It was early in August that the English Government permitted a large issue of Bank of England notes. If at the same time the Italian Government had taken similar action there can be no doubt that the same results would have been realized in Italy as in England, a diminution or cessation of the panic among depositors, most of whom would have ceased to throng to the doors of the banks; less hoarding; an almost normal prosecution of commerce and industry, in so far as this depends upon ready money; a minimum increase of circulation, because the greater the amount that can be issued, the smaller the amount that it is found necessary to really issue.

In conclusion this writer insists that Italy would benefit greatly by a less conservative financial policy, by a removal of the too rigid restrictions on currency that have so far been preserved, of this he says:

We must not ignore the gravity of the political and financial problems the government has had to confront, but it is none the less certain that our country, which has suffered and still suffers so much, expects that more efficient aid in its troubles which other lands are now enjoying. It was a sad spectacle to see our vintage left to its own resources when no other branch of industry seemed more worthy of assistance. At present, more energetic action on the part of producers, manufacturers and exporters is invoked on every side, in order to attain conditions less oppressive than those now prevailing; but this would be absolutely vain without a different financial policy on the part of the State, one designed to facilitate a broadening of credits and discounts by the larger and smaller banks.

## EUROPEAN LOAN BANKS IN WAR TIME

THE disturbance of credits in commerce and industry caused by the present international war has given rise to many different kinds of preventive measures or palliatives, in the various countries directly or indirectly involved, and some of these are discussed and examined by Signor Carrara in *Rivista Internazionale* (Rome).

In Germany the government, from the very outset of the war, organized a system of short-term loans (from three to six months) upon merchandise or listed securities, issuing against this pledge notes receivable in state institutions, but not obligatory as legal tenders for debts to individuals. The emission of such notes up to 1,500,000,000

marks was authorized, no pledge of less than 100 marks' value being accepted; the amount of the loan was to equal from one-half to two-thirds of the estimated value of the security deposited, at the rate of interest ruling in the Reichsbank.

A similar course has been pursued by Austria, the total amount of the notes to be issued being limited to 500,000,000 Austrian crowns. The term of these loans is generally limited to three months; in exceptional cases, however, it may be extended to six months.

Of the neutral countries, the Swiss Confederation has adopted analogous measures, but here the loan institution, with its main office in Zürich, is accorded the right of issu-

ing bank-notes to the amount of 25,000,000 francs, which become legal tenders, not, however, as yet redeemable in specie or government bank-notes. As security for the loans, government bonds, both Swiss and foreign, active listed securities, as well as merchandise not liable to deterioration, may be accepted. As with Germany and Austria, the interest charge is not to exceed that of the state banks.

In all these countries the loan bank is a judicially responsible body, the operations of which are guaranteed by the state. Of their status and utility Signor Carrara says:

We have to do here with institutions founded to meet the peculiar emergencies arising from the war; essentially they are doing, on a large scale, the work of pawnbrokers. Much has been written in all lands against this business, but the facts have demonstrated that in certain stages of acute crisis it may serve a useful purpose. We should also bear in mind that these institutions are differentiated by the limited scope and aim of their activities, solely to aid commerce and industry. This is clearly shown by the relatively large percentage of the loan in relation to the value of the security, and more than all by the low rate of interest, which may not exceed the current rate of the state banks.

Undoubtedly these are foundations directly due to the war, destined to alleviate the miseries it has caused. Their mission is not to develop commerce and industry, but to sustain them in this crisis and to protect them from the rapacity of speculators only too ready to profit by the present opportunity for securing on easy terms the merchandise and securities of the merchants and manufacturers who may be forced to realize on them. We must admit that those merchants who are obliged to pledge their merchandise or their machines, and are therefore not able to utilize them, and have besides to pay interest on their loans, are worse off than those who pledge securities and jewelry, or the like, as these have no direct influence upon productions, and generally represent the savings of the merchant or manufacturer, who may have preserved himself from a disastrous failure by

obtaining the loan. In any case these loan institutions founded by Germany, Austria, and Switzerland are of a transitory character, and are only destined to endure while the exceptional conditions brought about by the war last, and to be dissolved as soon as the war shall have ended and business shall have resumed its normal course.

The writer notes that the urgent necessity for the systematic prosecution of agricultural work in this conflict, when so many farmers and farm laborers are serving in the army, was immediately recognized by Austria, and that in this country special and stringent regulations were enacted from the very beginning of the war to avoid the probable dangers as far as possible.

To this end all persons of either sex within the territory of a commune were obliged, under the commissioners' order, to aid in the harvesting and cultivation of the fields within the circumscription. Only ecclesiastics, physicians and persons entirely unable to work, and those whose whole time was required to cultivate their own land, were exempted.

Moreover, the commission was empowered to use the draft animals and machines on any one given farm for another, when they were not in actual use on the home farm, and in case the labor resources of the commune should prove insufficient, a commission has the right to put itself in connection with another commune and call in the requisite aid. That these dispositions are subversive of the habitual order of things is recognized by Signor Carrara, who does not, however, criticize them, but on the contrary, in view of the abnormal conditions, thinks them deserving of praise. None the less, he expresses the hope that it may soon be possible to suspend all such extra-legal measures.

## HOW GERMANY AND AUSTRIA-HUNGARY ARE FINANCING THE WAR

THAT money is the sinew of war even Napoleon admitted, and Frederick the Great said he needed money first, last and all the time for his many wars. The question of raising funds for the present gigantic conflict is discussed under the title, "The New German War Credit Budget," by Dr. Julius Wolf in the *Neue Freie Presse* (Vienna).

The article opens with some remarkable comparisons. When the French adventurer, General Boulanger, at the end of the eighties

began to alarm Europe, and was about to establish a military dictatorship, Bismarck ordered an estimate of the cost of a two-fronted war for Germany. It was then computed that the first six weeks would cost about two milliards of marks (approximately \$500,000,000). The chancellor held this amount to be much too high. The war of 1870-71 had not cost Germany more than 1750 millions of marks (\$437,500,000). The figures had to be revised, but gave the same result as in the first case. Since then



the German army has-kept growing and the very expensive navy has been added.

In a recently published pamphlet, *Die Kriessrechnung* ("The War Bill"), published by Georg Reimer, Berlin, the writer has estimated the cost for the first month of war for Germany at two and a half milliards of marks (\$625,000,000). Nine hundred millions have already been spent for transportation alone,—horses, automobiles, etc. However, the expenses recede materially after an accomplished mobilization. One milliard per month, equal to 33,000,000 marks (\$8,250,000) per day, is a safe average for Germany from the second month on. The initial cost depends, of course, more or less on rapidity in the progress of the operations of war, but if the expenditures are distributed over a longer period of time, we get an estimate of seven marks (\$1.75) per day per man. On a basis of six months' duration of war from two fronts, Germany needs about seven and a half milliards, for nine months' duration ten milliards (\$2,500,000,000). The writer proceeds to analyze the resources:

The Empire had at its disposal five milliards of marks from the first war credit budget; the second from December 2 provided for an equal amount. On the opening of hostilities the war chest contained 240,000,000 in gold and something over 30,000,000 in silver. Taking in consideration *Die Wehrabgabe* [defensive tax] that became law before the war and should have brought in one milliard within three years, we can say that after granting the recent five milliards, Germany has at its disposal the funds for a war lasting ten months. This would mean a war leading into May of the current year. However, in order to avoid scarcity of money, the letter of the law allows the time limit to expire at the end of March,—the end of the current fiscal year. We see then that the heads of the German financial staff are even guarded against surprises. Yet a new budget will not be required for some time, because a loan of five milliard marks, exceeding the French war indemnity of five milliard francs by 25 per cent., cannot be expected on such short notice from small, middle-class, or even large capitalists.

Dr. Wolf estimates the economical losses that Germany will suffer from the war at one-third of the normal national income realized in time of peace. For normal years this is set at about forty milliards, though some authorities consider these figures rather high. Deducting one-third from this amount, twelve months of war would leave a sum of twenty-seven milliards of marks.

It seems as if ten milliards could thus be spared for the state without incurring any disadvantage to productive capacity. The question is only: Has the money really been saved? In normal years the annual savings of Germany were from eight to eight and a

half milliards. In time of war, thanks to greater economy, they can be put down at six milliards. Hence the advisability of refraining from a third loan the size of the first two for some time to come, and being content with procuring the funds for redeeming the coupons deposited with the Reichsbank. The termination of the war, at least on one of the two fronts is also within the range of possibility, and it is, of course, the intention to use the indemnity to be paid by the enemy. The writer, comparing the English method of financing the war, says:

In view of these possibilities to be reckoned with, the German Government does not think of introducing the British pattern of war taxes. We will not recur to the expedient adopted by Lloyd George of plundering the taxpayer already seriously reduced in his income by an extortionate income tax. There is no necessity for Germany to drop into such ways.

In a second article the Austrian daily deals with the difficulties of raising funds on the Austro-Hungarian side and the happy solution of the problem. The leader comments on how the deceased Minister of Finance, Count Zaleski, had to go to the American banking firm, Kuhn, Loeb & Co., for the covering of the expenditures relative to armaments in the Balkan wars. These bankers, however friendly to Austria, do not look for less than 7 per cent. in the old world, and the loan of a rather paltry 125,000,000 of crowns (\$25,000,000) was a defeat and a disappointment for the Dual Monarchy. Two and a half milliards, the present war loan, has been floated without Kuhn, Loeb & Co., without Morgan or other masters of high finance. His loans sprung directly from the wealth and goodwill of the people and is taken as a lasting political demonstration, a proof of the unexhausted wells of patriotism of the Dual Monarchy.

The belligerent states expend as much daily as the whole Serbian campaign in the Balkan war may have cost. In the game we are witnessing the bowl thrown on the alley knocks down a milliard at a time, and there is hardly any use talking except at ten figures. Germany has arrived at the tenth, England at the fourteenth milliard.

After four months of war the present budget of two and a half milliards, 800 millions of which were signed in Hungary, is not intended for past, but for future operations. It will enable Austria-Hungary to carry on the war over the winter into the spring. The sign of weakness when Count Larisch had to go borrowing in Paris before the first cannon shot is past. Instead of paying 7 per cent. to strangers, the 6 per cent. of the present loan will stay at home. We are proud of what

has been accomplished economically. It has produced an atmosphere of renewed confidence. Money was always lacking in Austro-Hungarian wars and the fear of scarcity hung like nightmare over us. Who is now talking about the disintegration of the different nationalities of the Dual Monarchy, when they all, from the humblest to the highest, have sacrificed their shares? The burnt offerings put on the altar of the common enemy have indeed largely been contributed by the poorer classes.

As to how Austria-Hungary stands compared with other belligerents we gather the following information. The Hungarian

Minister of Defense, Baron Hazai, anent a debate in parliament, made the remark that there would be needed nine milliards for twelve months of war. Colonel von Renauld figured the expenses per day and head at six marks. General Andrée, former French Minister of War, declared in the Chamber of Deputies that a French campaign would devour 400 millions monthly. There are no exact figures for Austria-Hungary, but on authority it can be said that the load will be less than for either France or Germany.

## "FOR THE GERMAN PEOPLE PEACE WITH FREEDOM"

SOME of the most interesting developments in connection with the great war have had to do with the influence of the press upon public opinion. In this country all the important daily newspapers recognized the gravity of the European situation from the moment that war was declared, and many of them have spent vast sums of money in the effort to inform their readers not merely of what was taking place on the battlefields, but of the underlying forces, political and economic, that brought on the war and which must be reckoned with in the conclusion of peace.

The New York *Times* is one of the papers that have displayed marked enterprise in this regard. In the matter of publishing and circulating documentary materials relating to the war the *Times* has excelled all its contemporaries, even its London namesake "the Thunderer" itself, and its treatment of the news of the war is so highly regarded in England that material from its columns has been repeatedly cabled to London and reprinted by English papers. Its daily interpretation of events and tendencies has also drawn the attention of the English-speaking world to an unusual degree. From the very first its editorial utterances respecting the war have been enlightened, well-considered, dignified, and forceful. One of these war editorials has attained the remarkable distinction of transmission and reproduction in many newspapers throughout Great Britain, and the comment of leading British journals places it among the most influential writings that have been published in this country since the outbreak of the war.

This article, entitled "For the German People, Peace with Freedom," appeared in

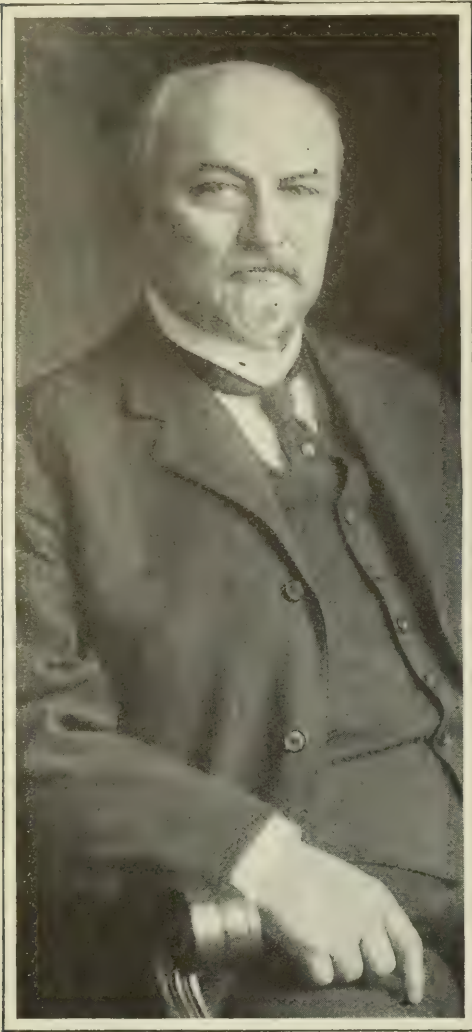
the *Times* of December 15, and is understood to have been the work of the editor-in-chief of the *Times*, Mr. Charles R. Miller, who is one of the veterans among American newspaper writers. Mr. Miller came to the *Times* just forty years ago, having served an apprenticeship of three years on the Springfield *Republican* immediately after his graduation from Dartmouth College. The anonymity of the editorial page has not succeeded wholly in concealing during all these years Mr. Miller's individual traits of thought and style.

The article on "Peace with Freedom" opens with the affirmation that Germany is already doomed to defeat.

Bankrupt in statesmanship, overmatched in arms, under the moral condemnation of the civilized world, befriended only by the Austrian and the Turk, two backward-looking and dying nations, desperately battling against the hosts of three great Powers to which help and reinforcement from States now neutral will certainly come should the decision be long deferred, she pours out the blood of her heroic subjects and wastes her diminishing substance in a hopeless struggle that postpones but cannot alter the fatal decree.

Yet this very doom, in the opinion of the writer, may become the deliverance of the German people, "if they will betimes but seize and hold their own." We are reminded from the pages of history that with the fall of Napoleon came the real emancipation of the French people, and that later the French Republic itself arose after the imperialism of Napoleon III had been overthrown at Sedan. The writer leaves it to be inferred that the only outcome of the present war must be the overthrow of German imperialism, but, he asks, will the Germans blindly insist on having their Waterloo, their Sedan, their





MR. CHARLES R. MILLER, OF THE NEW YORK "TIMES," WHOSE APPEAL TO THE GERMAN PEOPLE, "PEACE WITH FREEDOM," HAS BEEN READ ALL OVER THE WORLD

Germany. If German diplomacy was incompetent, German imperialism was not less at fault in plunging the empire into war with three great nations which were able to meet Germany with forces more than double her own.

The article does not go so far as to charge incompetence against the German military machine. "The German army was magnificent in its strength, in equipment, and in valor." The simple truth is that it was over-matched. It is well known that the plan of the General Staff was to rush upon Paris, overwhelm France, and then turn on Russia. But the rush upon Paris failed. "When the invaders were driven back from the Marne to the Aisne and the Belgian frontier Germany's ultimate defeat was registered in the book of fate and heralded to the watching world."

Furthermore, this article declares, the world cannot and will not let Germany win. All the nations of Europe knowing Germany now as they did not know her before, believe that under German domination peace and security would vanish from the earth. So if a deadlock is reached in the conflict and it seems clear that England, France, and Russia cannot overcome Germany, they will be joined by Italy, Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, the Greeks, and the men of the Balkans. "For their own peace and safety the nations must demolish that towering structure of militarism in the center of Europe that has become the world's danger-spot, its greatest menace."

So this writer argues that the only possible end of the war is through the defeat of Germany, and why, he asks, should the German people make further sacrifice of blood to save the pride and shoulder-straps of German officialdom? "It means a million more battlefield graves. It means frightful additions to the bill of costs and to the harshness of the terms. Since the more dreadful ending is in plain view, why not force the better ending now?"

Americans of German birth or of German descent may have a duty to perform in this matter. Seeing and feeling the truth about the present position of Germany, it would be unfraternal and cruel for German-Americans further to keep the truth from their brothers in the Fatherland who are not now permitted to know the whole truth. "The sword must go, the scabbard, too, and the shining armor. If the Germans here have at all the ear of the Germans there, can they not tell them so?"

St. Helena too? "A million Germans have been sacrificed, a million German homes are desolate. Must other millions die and yet other millions mourn before the people of Germany take in the court of reason and human liberty their appeal from the imperial and military caste that rushes them to their ruin?"

The wretched incompetence of German diplomacy in the crisis of last July is clearly set forth. It is declared that Germany literally forced an alliance for this war between England and Russia, two powers often antagonistic in the past, and having now no common interest save the curbing of

# THE GERMAN POETS AND THE WAR

THE tremendous war enthusiasm that has swept all classes of German society is most strikingly reflected in the change it has wrought in German literature. Before the war Germany's leading authors belonged for the most part in the camp of the radicals. They were hostile to the Kaiser's Government, hungered for more democracy, supported the cause of the people, were opposed to militarism, preached peace and even internationalism, and often actively sided with that movement in Germany the aim of which was not only to overthrow the monarchy but to introduce democracy in social and economic affairs as well.

Gerhart Hauptmann, the most powerful advocate of the common people, never ceased to raise his voice in behalf of the poor, the downtrodden and the oppressed. Of gentle and humane disposition, he vigorously fought the military spirit, carried on an incessant propaganda for peace, winning for himself the Nobel prize for his efforts in the world peace movement. Richard Dehmel, one of the greatest poets of Germany, was an internationalist. Karl Henckell was the workingmen's poet, the poet of the Social Revolution, "the poet of the present with his eyes turned to the future," as he described himself. Frank Wedekind, the most revolutionary of them all, always consistently fought tradition and conventional morality. To-day they and their fellow poets have all been seized with the war spirit and not only sing the war, in the most approved military fashion, but many of them are voluntarily fighting on the battlefield.

In an article in *Der Kampf* Joseph Luitpold Stern reproduces extracts from their war poems, which make very queer reading, taken in connection with the sentiments expressed by these poets in the past. Hauptmann calls on every German to pick up his sickle and mow down a blade of grass.

A blade of grass that drips with blood,  
No mercy show; mow down the grass.

And the German answers:

I'll mow and mow and never rest.

Richard Dehmel once wrote a poem:

My fatherland is big.  
Ten nations have combined  
To make my little mind;  
I know not to what race  
The best in me to trace.

To-day, says Stern, he speaks of "the enemy's hordes" and of "robbers," "mercenaries," "scoundrels," "slaves." Once he had coined the phrase, "We, the world!" To-day he cries, "What? Is Germany to fling about Christian phrases instead of bombs and grenades?" "I and the future!" he once sang. To-day he is a volunteer soldier, a subaltern, and grows enthusiastic over the bursting of shrapnel and the smashing of the enemy. This sudden change has come over most of the German lyric poets. They have suddenly become haters. The only thing in which they do not quite agree is as to whom to hate most savagely. Some of them, unable at once to cut themselves entirely loose from their social attitude of the past, turn their hatred against czarism, though Karl Henckell has also attacked France.

The bitterest hatred is directed against England, the poet Ernst Lissauer leading all the rest. "What care we for Russia, what care we for France? Shot for shot, and blow for blow! We cherish hatred only against one enemy. We love in unison, we hate in unison; we all have but one enemy—England." And Herbert Eulenberg chimes in: "O, England, perfidious Albion! We shall never forget this, that thou hast betrayed thy brothers for the sake of mere money." Some, however, make no distinction between nations, impartially hurling their venomous shafts against all. In this class the palm must undoubtedly be awarded to Heinrich Vierordt, author of the poem "Germany, Hate!"

O-Germany, hate, in cold, in icy blood,  
Kill millions on millions of the devilish brood.  
Let the bodies heap up mountain high  
And the smoke of the flesh ascend to the sky.

O Germany, hate now, let this be your test,—  
The bayonet thrust in the enemy's breast.  
Take no one a prisoner, strike everyone dead,  
And draw round the wastelands a girdle of red.

One discordant voice in this harmonious chorus is Julius Bab, who though he accepts the war as a grim necessity refuses to sound the note of hatred, and in his verses manages to combine a love for his fatherland with a larger love for humanity. Other poets, like Karl Spitteler, Bruno Wille, William Bölsche, Von Ebner-Eschenbach and Ricarda Huch remain significantly and eloquently silent; while Hermann Hesse sings a touching and beautiful song to peace:



We all had it—  
None knew how precious—  
We all drank it,  
Sweet draft of peace.

How far away now!  
How strange the sound!  
None knows the day now,  
All wish it here.

Several of the young poets, however, who had a few months' experience of actual fighting have changed their martial strains, and their later poems show a return to a normal mood. Among these are Fritz von Unruh,

Leo Sternberg, and Rudolf Leonhard. Moreover, new poets are springing up whose vision has not been clouded by the war and whose emotions find a different outlet than that of stirring up hatred and glorifying war. They are taking up the thread of progress where the old German poets have dropped it. Such is the vitality of Germany that at the very moment when all her enlightened forces are being engulfed in the general cataclysm, a new generation is arising to fill in the gap and continue the work of the forward movement of the German people.

## BERGSON AND GERMAN CYNICISM

HENRI BERGSON, who has the reputation of being the greatest philosopher living to-day, was reported to have declared at a meeting of the French Academy that the spirit with which Germany entered the war was a cynical spirit amounting to a positive relapse into barbarism. To this Gerhart Hauptmann, the greatest literary figure of Germany and until the war a most vigorous opponent of militarism, replied that Bergson is nothing more than a "salon and pseudo-philosopher."

It happens, however, that Bergson is a student and admirer of German philosophy. He has mastered the teachings of Kant, and is familiar with the thought of the leading German philosophic writers of to-day. Moreover, he was instrumental in procuring a French translation of the works of Georg Simmel, professor of philosophy at the University of Berlin. Naturally, therefore, Simmel does not agree with Hauptmann's estimate of Bergson's standing as a philosopher. And yet he is just as angry with Bergson for calling Germany cynical and barbarous. In an article in the *Internationale Monatsschrift* in reply to Bergson he gives expression to his divided feelings, praising the French philosopher, but outraged at the imputation that there is any cynicism in the German attitude toward the war.

If Hauptmann's characterization of Bergson as a salon and pseudo-philosopher were true then there would be no need of paying any attention to what he says about us. But as a matter of fact it is not so. Bergson has earned the distinction not only of finding the best and most pragmatic expression for European ideas and strivings, but I am not alone among German philosophers in regarding him as the most powerful intellect of our day. It is true that intellect alone does not make a great philosopher. A certain other attribute is necessary, which, I have always maintained, Bergson does not possess. But he is a great thinker, nevertheless, and the terrible thing

is that not only mere pseudo-philosophers but men of sublime power of mind like Bergson should hold such opinions of us. No one would expect a different attitude from the average French public whose sole knowledge of Germany is derived from French newspapers. But that a Bergson should be willing to accept those opinions without exercising his critical faculty upon them shows the hopeless incapacity of the Frenchman to understand the German soul. In literary polemics the Frenchmen are masters, displaying a fine appreciation for the reality of things and always remaining chivalrous. That these qualities should have so utterly abandoned them at the present juncture reveals a depth of delusion and perverseness the horror and tragedy of which no words are strong enough to express.

Far from there being any cynicism in the German mental approach towards the war, Professor Simmel says that on the contrary the war has lifted the German people above every material and selfish consideration. Even the most thoughtless and cynical elements of the population have been brought face to face with a larger problem before which their own individual interests have vanished into the region of the subconscious. For the first time they have become actively aware what a precious thing the social body is, how big their country has grown within the last few decades. No longer do they view things from a petty personal standpoint. They are part of a great whole now, which they had unconsciously helped to build up and which in the hour of peril they find means more to them than anything else in the world. The war has given them a large vision, a wide outlook, which has nothing in common with self-interest and which is the very negation of all that is understood by the word cynicism. What from the first stirred the German people to their very depths is not so much the political and military danger as the consciousness that they were undergoing the crucible test, that their national existence was at stake.

Gone is all the worship of Mammon. Gone is the fetish of external success which finds expression only in money. The self-seeking of individuals and of classes to whom the collective whole was but a chimera has disappeared. No longer do we find among our people that search for mere estheticizing pleasures which totally disregards the evils and dangers of existence. To be sure, these our failings will reappear in some form or other in the future. We will not be angels. But for the present the causes or the re-

sults of cynicism have been eradicated from German life. The reason we could undertake this war at all was because we have freed ourselves from all that might have weakened our moral forces. If we were cynics we should perhaps have avoided the war at the expense of our dignity and future. What the cynic desires above all else is peace and quietness, security from outward danger, freedom from great agitations and upheavals. His slogan has always been: "*Après nous le déluge.*"

## THE GERMAN CATHOLIC VIEWPOINT

THE Catholics in Germany, it has been said, may be regarded as forming a state within a state. There is a very distinct line of cleavage in the Fatherland between Catholics and other citizens, not only in the religious sphere, but in politics and to some extent in economics as well. Politically, the adherents of the Roman Church are represented by the Centrum, numerically one of the strongest parties in the Reichstag. In the economic field they have always striven to hold the mass of Catholic working-men within the fold and to guard against their desertions to the Socialist camp by maintaining special Catholic labor unions.

Bismarck was naturally displeased with their separatistic tendencies and taunted them with not being strong enough nationalists. They cared more for the international idea of their religion than for the German idea of their fatherland, he complained. Yet by the remarkable unity they display in the present war Bismarck has been proved as wrong concerning the German Catholics as Wilhelm was wrong when he called the Socialists "fellows without a fatherland." Heinrich Schrörs, a Catholic theologian, professor at the University of Bonn, undertakes to show in the *Internationale Monatsschrift* the consistency between international Catholicism and fervent patriotism, and to explain the general attitude of the German Catholics in the present war.

It is true [Schrörs admits] that Catholicism in Italy, and still more so in France, and perhaps to a certain degree in North America, is more markedly national in character than it is with us in Germany, not only in the application of the Catholic religion to home affairs and church institutions, but also in the general formulation of Catholic ideas and in the conception of the principles and functions of our Church.

If in these matters we are not so nationalistic as in other countries, if we adhere more firmly to what constitutes the essence of our faith, maintaining the purity of its supernatural character, then we lay ourselves the less open to the suspicion of being willing to make sacrifices upon the altar of

chauvinism. The conviction and devotion with which we uphold the Kaiser and are determined to fight for the defense and honor of our Empire is therefore added proof that this war is not a war of cupidity and conquest, but a war into which we have been forced against our will. Were it not so, it would be irreconcilable with the fundamental principles of Catholicism.

The writer then goes on to show that from the Catholic point of view German militarism was justified only by the menace of militarism in other countries, and that on one occasion, when the demands of the government for an increase of the military burdens did not seem sufficiently warranted by necessity, the Catholic party offered such strong resistance as to lead to the dissolution of the Reichstag. Selfish militarism is antagonistic to the Christian religion, the cardinal principle of which is love and righteousness. Catholic theologians from the time of the Fathers on through the scholastics of the middle ages down to the present have consistently and steadfastly condemned war and preparations for war. They have condemned unjust wars not only by nations, but have declared it sinful for the individual to fight in such wars.

It is one of the most painful necessities in the present situation [Schrörs continues] that we have to draw the sword against nations such as France, with whom we are united by the highest cultural interests and for whose science we have the deepest regard. This is true especially of German Catholic theology, which, more than any other science, shares its broad foundations with the same science in other countries, particularly France. In fact, in a certain sense, our theology is identical with French theology. This is natural in view of the essential unity of Catholicism, which goes much deeper than the unity of Protestant theology. Between the Protestantism of Germany and the Protestantism of England, for example, there are no such close ties.

In brief, between the Catholic theologians in Germany and those on the other side of the Vosges the relations are so close and intimate that to speak of national hostility between them is absurd. We should greatly deplore the humiliation of France or the impairing of its position as a civilized na-



tion. If in the present war we could detect any such object on the part of the German Government, even as a secret tendency, we should be the first to oppose it.

It was Russia that was the immediate cause of the war, and to the Catholic world that is of extreme significance. Pan-Slavism is bound up with the Orthodox Christianity of the East. The Russian cross on the Hagia Sophia of Constantinople is to become the symbol under which the Balkan nations are to join the Empire of the Czar, and under which the Greek-Russian Church is to dominate the whole world. The deep enmity of that church toward Latin Christianity, which has existed since their separation in the ninth century,

has never been overcome. It still furnishes the fuel for the fire that welds the church communities of the East.

In the minds of the Russian people and of the Orthodox believers of the Balkan peninsula the present war is also a religious war. It is therefore difficult to understand how the French clergy can be enthusiastic over their alliance with the Muscovite Empire. Even the non-Catholic French have good reason to fear Russian victory. Their interests in the Orient are strongly protected by the Catholic missions and by the age-long protectorate over them. If the Greek-Russian influence becomes predominant there, these missions will be wiped out of existence.

## THE RUSSIAN POINT OF VIEW AS SET FORTH BY KROPOTKIN

ONE of the clearest, most cogent statements of Russia's point of view on the war which has yet appeared in English comes in the form of a letter written by the famous Russian anarchist-exile, Peter Kropotkin, from London, to the *Russkiya Vedomosti*.

Under the existing circumstances, says this eminent Russian revolutionist,

every one who has the strength to do something, to whom all that was best in European civilization and for which the workingmen's "International" fought is dear, can do just one thing,—help Europe crush the foe of our most sacred covenants, German militarism and German imperialism.

The best spirits of European liberalism, says Kropotkin, have fought this militarism. The German Socialist leaders, Bebel and Liebknecht, fought it in 1871, when they protested against the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine to the German Empire against the will of the people of those provinces. "They saw in this international robbery the source of new, inevitable wars, and with these the arrest of civilization and progress." Bakunin, Garibaldi, among other radicals, as well as many of the "bourgeoisie of all Europe," protested against the harsh terms Prussia exacted from prostrate France. "All felt that the triumph of the Prussian Junker would inevitably lead to the triumph of militarism and the mailed fist in all Europe; to the general detriment of culture."

Peaceful protestations against militarism, continues this Russian radical, have been unavailing since

the power of the old order of the military state gained the upper hand, since he who, when send-

ing German troops to China against the "Boxers," could call himself Attila and order his soldiers to be as cruel as the hordes of Attila became the leader and spokesman of Germany; since this evil power gained the upper hand and let its brutalized soldiers run loose in Western Europe, our duty is to resist this power by all means at our disposal.

To the German contention that Russia's support of Serbia was the cause of the war, Kropotkin makes the following remarkable statement:

It was well known to the statesmen of Western Europe that *yet on the nineteenth of July the German government had irrevocably decided upon war*. The Austrian ultimatum to Serbia was the effect of this decision and not the cause.

The final decision was arrived at on July nineteenth. But how many times since 1871 was Germany ready to start war on France! Germany lived always in readiness for it, and France waited all the time for another invasion which she would be helpless to stop. Three times, at first in the reign of Alexander II and after of Alexander III, Russia was forced to intervene in order to avert the otherwise inevitable destruction of France. Within the last three years an European war was twice on the point of breaking out. In June, 1911, it was so near that here in England coal for warships was transported from Wales to Newcastle by rail. To transport by water would have been perhaps too slow and already unsafe.

Last year Austria kept under arms a million of mobilized soldiers near her eastern frontier, and German cavalry yet in February, when snow still lay in Russia, stood on the western border of Poland, quite ready for advance. I know this from eye-witnesses.

For various reasons,—chiefly the incomplete conditions of several of Germany's works of defense (notably the fortifications of the Kiel Canal, and the forts around Königsberg and Danzig),—the war did not break out as soon as the Germans intended,

—so Kropotkin contends. And yet, he goes on to say, even last winter,

various signs pointed to the proximity of the war, and in February, at Bordighera I argued with my friend the editor of the *Temps Nouveau*, how wrong the French were in protesting against the law of three-year military service. There was no other way, in view of Germany's increase of her ready-for-battle army by two hundred thousand people. If France had ordered a mobilization, even partial, she would have appeared the author of the war. "The war will start," I said, "as soon as harvest time approaches in Russia and France. The Germans know that, otherwise, they will not have anything with what to feed their armies, particularly their rapidly advancing cavalry. Remember that the war of 1870 started on July 15th." My Russian friends I advised to leave for home as early as possible. . . .

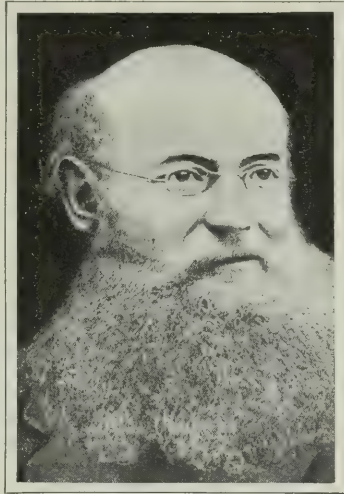
Really, who of the Belgian statesmen did not know that it had long been decided to conquer Belgium at a favorable moment and to compel Holland to join the German empire, because in her hand are the straits which lead from the Indian Ocean into the Pacific? As to France, it was long, long ago decided to reduce her to the status of a third-rate power. To these aims the whole life of the German empire has been directed. Millions of people, bourgeois and workmen alike, dream in Germany about these conquests.

The real cause of the war, this Russian writer and thinker insists, is the fact that,

excepting an insignificant minority, that class which directs the political life of Germany was drunk with its triumph over France and its rapidly developing military power on land and on

the seas. That class considers it offensive to Germany that her neighbors hinder her from taking possession of the rich (ready and inhabited) colonies in the Mediterranean (Morocco, Algeria, Egypt) and also of Asia Minor and a part of China, are ahead of her in the plans for seizing the future Adriatic of the Indian Ocean, that is, the Persian Gulf, and in general do not let her establish her hegemony in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

The rapid development of German manufacturing industries within the last forty years without the simultaneous growth of material prosperity among the peasantry, which would afford a market for the sale of manufactured goods (as in the United States), has made it that the immense mass of the German proletariat was being infected with the same conquest plans, and also dreams now about the rapid development of the powerful, conquering capitalism. The result is a real worship of the idea of an unified military state, the adoration of the army, and a striking unanimity in dreams of conquests.



PRINCE KROPOTKIN

In general, Kropotkin believes the triumph of Germany in this war would mean the "subjection of all European civilization to problems of military domination."

As to the end of the struggle, he concludes thus:

The Allies will win, and this war will be the last European war. The rights of all nationalities to free development will be recognized; the federative principle will find a wide application at the remaking of the map of Europe. The horror of war and the inability of armed peace to prevent it strike the eye so forcibly that a period of universal disarmament approaches.

## GUARDING AGAINST INFECTION FROM WAR EPIDEMICS

**T**HANKS to the modern sciences of bacteriology, asepsis, et cetera, the terrible epidemics that formerly followed in the wake of war, ravaging not only troops but the civilian populace as well, and devastating whole continents, are now a thing of the past. However, when such enormous masses of men are engaged as in the present war, it is impossible to avoid outbreaks of infectious disease in camps and its subsequent penetra-

tion into the surrounding populace, which the renewed tide of immigration may bear even to our own shores. It will be well, therefore, to heed the precautions advised in an article on the subject in the *Oesterreichische Rundschau* (Vienna) by the eminent medical man, Dr. Weichselbaum.

The chief war epidemics are the various forms of typhus and typhoid fevers, flux, and cholera, the former scourge of smallpox be-



ing now too well under control to be feared as much as formerly. Thus far, it is said, only flux and cholera have appeared.

These diseases have much in common; both appear in these parts most frequently in late summer and fall, and the seat of both is the intestinal canal. Hence, the germs of both are excreted with the evacuations, and are communicated by contact with these,—only in case, however, that they enter the digestive canal by means of the mouth. The chief cause of this is the handling of food or putting the fingers in the mouth after such excreta have been touched, or when soiled linen, clothes, and utensils have been handled. Infection may also occur when the linen is laundered, if drops of the wash-water be accidentally splashed into the mouth. Food and drink may also carry the germs.

Both germs, especially that of cholera, are very perishable; hence they are destroyed by various causes, such as desiccation, formation of acids, decay and high temperatures. . . . Hence they usually become harmless on dry bread, acid fruit or dried fruit, or when heated, as when food is cooked. They are also apt to perish quickly in drinking and other water because of the presence in these of saprophytic bacteria likewise; but under certain conditions they may continue to exist for a time, cholera germs even for several weeks, on which account drinking-water infections of flux and especially of cholera may become very serious. Flies also carry the germs.

Another serious menace is the carrying of the germ by those who have such light cases that they are not recognized, and in the case of flux by those who have chronic cases. Similarly the "carriers" who, though quite well themselves, harbor the germs, may spread disease without being suspected for months or years, as in the well-known instance of the woman in this country known as "Typhoid Mary." Certain conditions too, *e.g.*, disturbances of digestion due to catarrh of the stomach or bowels, may increase the susceptibility to these infections.

The preventive measures advised during such outbreaks are, first, the most careful washing of the hands before eating or handling any sort of food. If it has been necessary to touch objects which have been soiled by a patient's excreta the hands must also be disinfected, *e.g.*, with a one or two per cent. solution of lysol or lysoform. It is advised, too, that food should be eaten only when *recently* cooked, and therefore that cold food as well as raw food should be avoided. However, bread, cake, pastry, etc., may be looked on as harmless provided the surface is perfectly *dry*. Raw fruit should be used circumspectly.

In raw foods prepared with vinegar (salads and pickles) the germs of flux and cholera probably die quickly; great caution, however, should

be observed in their use, as well as in that of raw fruit, because of the digestive disturbances and consequent catarrhs they may occasion. . . . Since cholera germs can survive from one to two days in milk, as much as two hours in a 6 per cent. solution of coffee, and an hour in a 4 per cent. solution of tea, these should only be used after boiling. They perish quickly in wine and beer (the cholera germ survives three hours in beer, but only a quarter of an hour in wine; but it is better not to drink either, since beyond a very moderate amount they tend to cause digestive disturbance.

That all drinking-water should be sterilized is, of course, stringently recommended. Another important point made is that there are no medicaments which will act as preventives, though various ones are in repute which are not only useless but may even be harmful. However, the recently introduced vaccines are excellent, though it must be remembered that the immunity they confer is much briefer than that of smallpox vaccine. They should be employed only on the order of a physician. A specific serum has also been discovered which is said to be an effective cure for a certain form of flux.

The remainder of the article considers briefly other epidemic diseases prevalent during war. Typhoid fever is spread in the same way as are cholera and flux, and the precautionary measures to be observed are similar.

Spotted fever was formerly a very frequent accompaniment of campaigns; even now its appearance amongst us is not an impossibility, since it is found in many parts of Galicia even in times of peace. It was formerly considered a highly infectious disease, which could be carried even by the air, which explained the frequent attacks of doctors and nurses. It is as infective as ever, but it is known to be carried by blood-sucking vermin. . . . This explains the long-known fact that it is a particular plague of barracks, asylums, dirty inns, and crowded prisons, in which the aforesaid vermin are common. The most certain preventive is rigidly to avoid places that harbor them.

In the Franco-Prussian War the troops on both sides were attacked by smallpox, and it was brought into Germany by prisoners of war. It is highly infective, because its germ is very resistant, even to desiccation, for which reason it may be communicated through the air or through clothing, bedding, books, etc., used by the patient, and by the hands or clothing of attendants.

The germ is present in the pustules from the beginning of their development until the entire disappearance of the scab, and sometimes also in the saliva, urine, and *feces*. Happily we possess in vaccination a very effective and harmless preventive which should be urgently advised.

## AN AMERICAN AIR SCOUT IN THE EUROPEAN WAR

SO much of a dramatic nature appears in the daily press relating to the activities of the air pilots in the European War that it is interesting to read the personal experiences of an American flier who served as a pilot with the French aviation corps. These experiences are recounted in the *Scientific American* for December 26, 1914, and January 2 and 9, 1915. Mr. Frederick C. Hild, the well-known American flier, inspired with the spirit of adventure, sailed for France with a large band of reservists from New York in the early part of September.

From the time of his departure on the steamer and up to the point of his actual service as an army air pilot Mr. Hild's experiences are replete with instances of having to contend with official red tape in a manner that was anything but encouraging to a man who had crossed the ocean to serve as a volunteer in one of the most dangerous of the military branches. Landing at Havre, he observed that "nearly all factories were closed, and the sight of women, both young and old, sweeping the streets clean and collecting the fares on the tramways was rather peculiar."

In Paris, also, industry was at a low ebb, the only factories operating being those that were turning out supplies for the government, the others being closed for lack of men. The sight of barricades in Paris, train-loads of wounded soldiers, and troops of German prisoners, was among his other foretastes of war. Arriving at the aviation station at Tours, he passed his examination as a pilot, the test being to take an aeroplane to a height of 7000 feet, remaining at or above that altitude for at least an hour. The outfitting department from which he was to get his uniform reminded him of "a second-hand clothing store in New York City." The barn-like structure serving as pilots' quarters was far from inviting. But Mr. Hild's fellow

pilots were a congenial company, including many wealthy Frenchmen and world-famous fliers, as well as some distinguished foreigners.

The routine of the camp, beginning with the morning bugle-call at 6:30, the hasty toilet in a cold stream, a breakfast of black coffee and hard, dry bread (wisely supplemented by purchases from peasants in the vicinity), together with disappointing waits for duty and occasional trial flights, filled up the period before actual service at the front. The longed-for order which finally came took Mr. Hild, in company with five other pilots, to St. Cyr, where six Morane-Saulner aeroplanes awaited them. In these machines, equipped with map cases and compasses, they set out on their journey for the front, near Arras. The flight was short, but gave some interesting glimpses of activity in the war zone.



MR. FREDERICK C. HILD

Several times, with the aid of field-glasses, I could see far below me thousands of soldiers marching toward the battle front. Destroyed bridges over the Oise and Somme rivers showed me ground that had been occupied by the Germans a few weeks before.

The next morning came an actual service flight.

Rising to a height of seven thousand feet, I headed the machine toward Douai and thence towards Lens. The flight lasted a little longer than an hour, and proved to be intensely exciting. At times it was impossible to see the earth directly along the line of battle, owing to the terrific cannonading going on; the smoke was so dense that it seemed as if we were flying above the clouds. We penetrated the enemy's line for a distance of half a dozen miles where the actual movement of troops was going on, the data on which was quite important to the French. There appeared vast columns of soldiers that in the winding roads seemed like great big snakes crawling along.

In an hour of flying the observer on Mr. Hild's machine had sufficient time to make



ample notes of the movements of the enemy's troops over which they were flying, and upon alighting these notes were immediately dispatched to the front. After making this report, other machines equipped for bomb-dropping and the discharging of sharp-pointed steel arrows, were dispatched to harass the enemy's troops. Mr. Hild gives an interesting description of these new missiles and the method of discharging them. One machine of this particular expedition of destruction failed to return, having become the victim of terrific gunfire at an imprudent level. Loss of life among the aviators at Mr. Hild's particular section of the battle front, he had been informed, had been two a week since the war began.

Mr. Hild's third flight over the enemy almost proved to be his last one. Starting out with his observer, who was equipped to dispatch the steel darts, they flew about over a mass of German troops, dodging in and out among the clouds in order to foil the gunners

firing at them. Proceeding to return to headquarters, a German machine was sighted. Mr. Hild decided to give chase, although he and his observer were armed only with revolvers. The German machine headed for a cloudbank. Meanwhile another appeared, opening fire on the French aeroplane with a machine gun. With the armored German having an advantageous position above him, and the other Taube turning about and heading back for the fray, things were getting hot for Hild and his companion.

I then did the only thing possible. Pushing my elevating lever forward, my apparatus dived head first so steeply that it nearly turned upside down, and in a moment I was a thousand feet away, quite low, but fortunately for both of us we were well behind the German lines, and over country where there were few or no German soldiers to be seen, otherwise we should have been facing further difficulties to hamper our escape. Upon arriving at the bottom of our steep descent, I leveled out my machine and soon left the German machines in the rear.

## JOFFRE,—WHAT MANNER OF MAN HE IS

TALL, deep of chest, with a massive head, the broad forehead of which is underscored, as it were, by the sharp line of bushy eyebrows, a strong jaw and heavy mustache, all contributing to make a figure of great manliness and vigor,—such is General Joffre, as described in a sympathetic sketch by a writer who signs himself "Miles," in a recent number of the *Correspondant*, of Paris. Speaking further of the personality of the commander-in-chief of France's armies in the field, this writer says:

His clear blue eyes, set wide apart, are bright and attentive. They attract instant attention. Their expression is more often mild than otherwise. They are the most expressive of his features, which, like his build, are of the heavy type. Those eyes reveal the mind that does not translate itself into words. General Joffre is taciturn. He thinks, he listens, he decides. His orders are brief and sharp. His thoughts are condensed into terse sentences. There are no superfluous words, but no detail is forgotten. Everything is accomplished without noise and without spectacularity.

This is why, we are told, so little was known about this military hero until the destiny of France was suddenly placed in his hands. The *Correspondant* writer recalls the manner of Joffre's selection to lead the French armies.

In July, 1911, when the work of military reconstruction in France had reached a critical point, the question of the appointment of the commander-in-chief at once arose. As in 1870, France had almost perished from lack of able leaders; it was now a matter of the highest importance to see that this mistake should not be repeated in time of war. The famous General Pau had been appointed commander-in-chief. He resigned because of certain conditions which would have hampered him in the choice of subordinates and the same council appointed Joffre to the high position.

Who is this Joffre? asks "Miles," and then supplies us with this interesting information:

For some years past his name had appeared from time to time among those of members of governmental commissions, but few Frenchmen knew anything about him. A very few, perhaps, remembered that a certain Commander Joffre had some years before entered Timbuctoo amid dramatic circumstances. The people hesitated to accept this man who had never talked of himself and of whom no one ever spoke.

After three years of silent labor as commander-in-chief, during which his name was seldom brought into public notice, the war broke out.

France, like a storm-tossed ship, seemed near to sinking. The heroism of the Belgians stayed the terrific onslaught of the enemy for a moment. Nevertheless, France, unprepared, and still bear-

ing the burdens of past mistakes, was forced to retreat, retreat, and retreat before the powerful foe until even hope seemed lost.

Suddenly, something happened and all was changed. A wave of uneasiness swept through the enemy's lines and gradually they began to fall back. It seemed a miracle, it was almost unbelievable, that at last it was victory, a real victory over the most formidable foe France had ever had to face. Then to the man who, without weakening for a moment, had borne all the reverses and kept up the courage in the ranks, the man who had reconstructed his army while retreating, and who knew when the decisive moment had come to turn defeat into success, all hearts turned with unbounded gratitude. The iron grill that bars the entrance to his modest dwelling in Auteuil, near Paris, is hung over with bouquets placed there by unknown hands. They are the naive and spontaneous homage offered by France to her savior.

This writer gives the following details as to Joffre's career:

Joffre was born in 1852 in Rivesaltes, near the frontier of the eastern Pyrenees. His family were plain, hard-working folk. He was a mild, intelligent child of the blond type. After completing his studies in the College of Perpignan he entered the Ecole Polytechnique at the age of seventeen. Entering fourteenth among 132 candidates he ranked as sergeant, and although younger than his classmates was made "captain" of his mess-room. Unfortunately for his studies, most of his messmates were turbulent and unruly. The youth and natural mildness of the "captain" proved great obstacles to the maintenance of his authority. Although trying to keep up with his studies conscientiously, he nevertheless lost rank. He learned then, by experience, the difficulties of good commandership and its requirements, and the lesson then learned seems never to have been wholly lost. He passed the examinations of the second year respectably, but showed no special aptitude. Young Joffre was not a mathematician, neither was he a specialist, but he gave evidence of being endowed with an open mind and a broad, flexible, well-balanced intelligence.

The Franco-Prussian war of 1870 interrupted his studies. He was not quite eighteen then, and he took part in the defense of Paris in one of the forts. After the war as his rank of lieutenant entitled him to no civil position, he entered second in the corps of engineers and pursued his studies at Fontainebleau. We find him later constructing forts near Paris, then in Montpellier and in the Pyrenees. In the meantime he had been promoted to the rank of captain, and in 1876, at the age of twenty-four, he still showed no particular distinguishing qualities. He was self-contained, thoughtful, but a pleasant comrade withal.



A RECENT PORTRAIT OF GENERAL JOFFRE

The loss of his wife at the beginning of 1885 completely changed the course of his life. Left without any family ties, Captain Joffre asked to be sent to Indo-China. It was at the time of the campaign of Courbet. This eminent chief, who understood men, soon singled out Joffre. He employed him in Formosa and keenly appreciating his services, had him decorated the same year. After the campaign Captain Joffre remained in Hanoi as chief of engineers to organize the defenses of Tonkin. Those who knew him at that time say he was a serious-looking officer with a veritable passion for work.

He returned to France and was made chief of battalion. For some time he taught the science of defense at Fontainebleau. In 1892 Commander Joffre was sent to Africa to lay the railroad between Kayes and Bafoulabé in the Sudan. The next year he joined Colonel Bonnier in the expedition which resulted in the taking of Timbuctoo. Joffre had been ordered to organize a column of soldiers out of a thousand men, two-thirds of whom were porters and servitors. In this expedition Joffre displayed great military ability. After his entrance into Timbuctoo, after a remarkable march of 813 kilometers, contested at every turn by the enemy, he was made lieutenant-colonel, and received the ribbon of the Legion of Honor a few months later. Returning to Paris, he served as secretary to the Commission of Inventions for some time. Then he went to Madagascar to build the military defenses at Diego Suarez, and they are said to be a remarkable piece of work.

In short, in whatever capacity Joffre was employed he displayed the qualities that have



made his achievements of to-day possible. They can be summed up in the words of the President of France, who said, on the occasion of the presentation of the military medal to Joffre:

"You have shown in the command of our armies qualities that have not failed for a moment,—a spirit of organization, method and order, the beneficial influence of which has extended from strategy to tactics, a wise, dispassionate judgment that knows how to provide against any emergency, an unshaken strength of soul, and a serenity whose

example inspires and radiates confidence and hope."

General Joffre, concludes this writer, is above all well-balanced, both in mind and in body. He has withstood all climates, and, until recently, was more blond than gray. Abstemious and an early riser, he is an enemy to all forms of coddling. He observes strict hygienic rules in order to maintain the health of his body and his capacity for work. His life is regulated like that of a monk.

## LORD NORTHCLIFFE AND THE WAR



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LORD NORTHCLIFFE

construing this pamphlet as an attack on Liberal journals, put forth a rejoinder explaining the consistent efforts of the *Daily News* and other Liberal papers in behalf of peace and pointing to alleged inconsistencies in the record of Lord Northcliffe and his newspapers.

Of more interest to the American public, however, is Lord Northcliffe's recent expression of his present opinions regarding the progress of the war. In a statement cabled to the United Press late in December the English publicist reiterated his opinion that Germany was already defeated when she began the retreat from Paris. Nevertheless, Lord Northcliffe is equally positive that the war must go on for several years before peace can be made, although even in England there are those who imagine that the struggle may be ended in 1915. One reason that Lord Northcliffe advances for his belief in the continuance of the war is the admitted fact of England's unpreparedness at its outbreak. He affirms that when war was declared England was not much better prepared for a land war with Germany than is the United States to-day. As it is, although Great Britain has more than 2,000,000 men in training, comparatively few of these are in the field. The English troops must be at the front before England's part in the war can really begin. It will be spring before the first of her new armies can begin fighting, and the invasion of Germany is looked forward to as a task of vast dimensions.

To raise the necessary army something more will be necessary, in Lord Northcliffe's opinion, than mere volunteering. He reminds us that in the sixties we had to resort to conscription in the American Civil War, and he believes that the same recourse will be required in England. As to the starvation of Germany, Lord Northcliffe looks upon

**A** VIGOROUS, and, from a neutral point of view, somewhat bootless discussion has been going on for several months in England concerning the respective attitudes of Lord Northcliffe's papers and the Liberal press towards the great war. Lord Northcliffe, as owner of the *London Times*, *Daily Mail*, and *Evening News*, as well as of numerous magazines, recently issued a pamphlet entitled "Scaremongering from the *Daily Mail*, 1896-1914," which contains extracts from the files of the *Daily Mail* tending to show that prophecies of war with Germany had been repeatedly made in that journal. Representatives of the Liberal press,

this as a possible outcome of the war, but since Germany is herself a self-supporting country, he believes that the process will be one of years rather than of months. Fully realizing that his prediction of a long war will prove disappointing to English and American business men, Lord Northcliffe

contends that even from the most sordid point of view it is better that the world should be rid of this menace to its peace once for all than that it should have "some sort of patched-up peace by treaty or compromise which would merely allow the Germans to fall back for another spring."

## AN INTERNATIONAL LEAGUE OF PEACE

"UTOPIA or Hell" is the forceful title of an article contributed by ex-President Roosevelt to the *New York Independent* for January 4. Colonel Roosevelt freely concedes the accuracy of General Sherman's famous definition of war, and as an alternative offers a plan for a world league of peace, to be composed of "efficient, civilized nations,—those that are efficient in war as well as in peace." This plan, he admits, has been characterized as Utopian, and he is also ready to admit that nations are not yet ready to accept it, but he believes that after the conclusion of the present European war all the participants will be ready to consider some proposal of this kind.

Joining in such a league as this means that "the nations shall by solemn covenant agree as to their respective rights, which shall not be questioned; that they shall agree that all other questions arising between them shall be submitted to a court of arbitration; and that they shall also agree,—and here comes the vital and essential point of the whole system,—to act with the combined military strength of all of them against any recalcitrant nation, against any nation which transgresses at the expense of any other nation the rights which it is agreed shall not be questioned, or which, on matters which are arbitrable, refuses to submit to the decree of the arbitral court."

Under this agreement every nation in the league would be guaranteed in its territorial integrity and no questions affecting national honor and vital interest would be brought before any international tribunal.

Colonel Roosevelt believes that his plan would prove entirely workable if nations treated their obligations under it in the spirit in which the United States treated its obligations as regarding the independence of Cuba, giving good government to the Philippines, and building the Panama Canal, or in the same spirit in which England acted when the neutrality of Belgium was violated. All the

civilized powers which are able and willing to furnish and to use force "when force is required to back up righteousness" would join to create a national tribunal and to provide rules in accordance with which that tribunal should act. The *status quo* at some given period would have to be accepted under these rules, for if an attempt should be made to redress all historical wrongs nothing but chaos could result.

Not merely the territorial integrity of each nation, but its sovereign right in certain particulars, including, for instance, the right to decide the terms on which immigrants should be admitted to its ports, would be guaranteed absolutely. In short, each nation's rights in matters affecting its honor and vital interests would be protected from infringement. Such rights would not be made arbitrable "any more than an individual's right to life and limb is made arbitrable." They would be mutually guaranteed.

All other matters that could arise between these nations should be settled by the international court. The judges should act, not as national representatives, but purely as judges, and in any given case it would probably be well to choose them by lot, excluding the representatives of the powers whose interests were concerned. Then the nations should severally agree to use their entire military force, if necessary, against any nation which defied the decree of the tribunal, or which violated any of the rights which in the rules it was expressly stipulated should be reserved to the several nations.

The benefits of the court, however, would not be confined to the contracting powers. A certain number of outside nations should be named as entitled to them. These nations should be chosen from those which were civilized and well behaved, but which, for one reason or another, were unwilling or unable to guarantee to help execute the decrees of the court by force. Such nations should have no right to take part in the nomination of



judges, but they would be treated with exact justice, and in the event of any one of the great contracting powers having trouble with one of them, they would be entitled to go into court, have a decision rendered and see the decision supported precisely as in the case of a dispute between any two of the great contracting powers themselves.

It will be noted that Colonel Roosevelt restricts this participation to such nations as are civilized and well behaved. For admission to the first circle of the contracting powers there will be a further qualification, viz., the ability of the nation to do its part in enforcing the decrees of the court. Neither China nor Turkey could be admitted to the first circle, but China might very well be admitted to the second circle of powers,—those entitled to the benefits of the court, al-

though not entitled to send judges to it. Mexico, in Colonel Roosevelt's opinion, would not be entitled to admission at present into either circle, while every European power, with the exception of Turkey, would be so entitled. Several of the South American governments could hardly expect to gain admission, nor could some of the independent Asiatic states or the independent African states. The council should have power to exclude any nation which is completely fallen from civilization. Of course, the proposed plan would be dependent, as Colonel Roosevelt says, upon reasonable good faith for its successful working, but this is only to say what is also true of every human institution. Under the plan there would be a strong likelihood of bettering conditions, and even an imperfect Utopia may be preferred to hell.

## A RECENT TALK WITH PRESIDENT WILSON

ONE of the few extended interviews with President Wilson that have been published since he entered the White House appears in the *Saturday Evening Post*, of Philadelphia, for January 9. The interviewer, in this instance, was one of the most experienced and competent political reporters in the country, Mr. Samuel G. Blythe, and there can be no doubt that the President's sentiments were accurately and intelligently transmitted by him. Moreover, Mr. Blythe's own observations are worth considering as those of a man who has had unusual opportunities to study the personalities that have figured prominently in American public life for many years.

Mr. Blythe has noted the general disposition to regard the President as a thinking machine, a being composed chiefly of brains and "cold, analytical, logical brains at that." Mr. Blythe is far from denying that the President is well supplied with those commodities, but he feels that the public should know that there is another side to him. It has been, it is true, obscured to a certain extent because his rise in public life has been so rapid.

Wherefore, it seems about the proper time to set down the fact here that Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States, is one of the most kindly, courteous, considerate, genial and companionable of men; that, so far from being aloof from the people, his passion is the people,—the real people,—and his sole desire is to serve them so long as his term of office shall continue, and

afterward in such measure as he may. He holds his position to be that of a man connected with his fellow men by a peculiar relationship of responsibility, and the vivid sense of that responsibility is doubtless accountable for the impression of aloofness. However, that is not what I started out to say. The point that presses at this time is that the President of the United States weighs one hundred and seventy-six pounds, and that those one hundred and seventy-six pounds are mostly bone and muscle. There is not an ounce of excess baggage in the way of flesh about him. He lives out-of-doors as much as he can. His face is tanned and so are his sinewy hands. His eye is bright and clear. His laugh is hearty and unaffected. His spirit is good. He is buoyantly healthy. He sleeps well, eats well, works hard, and plays whenever he has a chance.

President Wilson's chief recreation is golf, which he plays every day when the weather permits. He told Mr. Blythe that golf was for him a physical and mental barometer. His daily game tells him at once whether or not he is "in form." Before he took up golf he rode the bicycle a great deal and learned to know the state of his nerves by the condition of his legs as soon as he mounted the bicycle. If he started off jauntily, he knew that he was all right, but if he found it an effort there was something wrong.

The talk ran on from golf to various human traits, particularly egotism, and the difficulty that many men in political life find in taking "the impersonal view." This is the way that the President explained his theory that a truly great politician, the states-

man, is the man who takes the impersonal view of politics:

I think that every really great man in politics, either in this country or abroad, was impersonal in his relations to his politics and his place. Take Lincoln, for example. You remember the stories of his troubles with Stanton, his Secretary of War. One of them is that once, when Lincoln sent an order to Stanton, Stanton tore up the order, refused to obey it, and said to the messenger:

"You go back and tell Lincoln he is a damned fool!"

The man went back and told Mr. Lincoln.

"Did Stanton say I am a damned fool?" the President asked.

"He did."

"Well," said Lincoln, "Stanton generally knows what he is talking about."

That's what I mean, continued the President earnestly,—the power to subtract one's personality from the subject at hand. It is more necessary here than elsewhere. One cannot consider these problems as an individual. One must consider them impersonally, as an executive, appointed for a certain time to administer the office he holds, with due regard to the requirements of the people, and not in any sense with regard to his own predilections or prejudices or passions. I am responsible for running the Government as best I know how; but I am not the Government. The people are the Government.

As a sort of corollary of this opinion we may regard the President's comment on what Mr. Blythe terms the loneliness of his position. The President admitted that his office was indeed a lonely place, but that very lonesomeness has its compensations, and those compensations are great. "Standing alone here I feel and know that I am in closer conscious touch with the people. I can hear them better; sense their wants and their dues better; come closer to them than I could if I were surrounded by a group, either large or small, who were constantly dinning into my ears their own thoughts, ideas, desires and opinions. I am in closer conscious touch with the outside. There are no walls of selfish humans between me and the country. There is no babble of near-by voices to deafen my ears to the real demands from the great outside."

Coming to the question that Mr. Blythe next put: "What is the most disagreeable feature of the Presidency?" the President replied, without a moment's hesitation, "Patronage."

Patronage, and the genuine astonishment and resentment of personal friends that I cannot take care of them merely because they are personal friends. Politics, you know, as it is widely considered, consists in taking care of one's personal friends. Now I should like to do that, love to do it; but I cannot. And I am constantly perplexed at the genuine aggrievement of those friends because I cannot and do not.

I would willingly take the coat off my back and give it to a friend who needed it. My friends



MR. SAMUEL G. BLYTHE

can have anything I have that is mine; but I cannot give them what is not mine. These offices are not mine. They belong to the people. They are the nation's. Merely because a man is a personal friend of mine, or has been something or other that makes him think he is, is not a valid reason for bestowing on him an office that does not belong to me, but is mine only to administer through the proper person selected as the active agent. The obligation incumbent on me, as the distributor for the moment of these offices, is to find efficient men to hold them, not personal friends to hold them and get the emoluments.

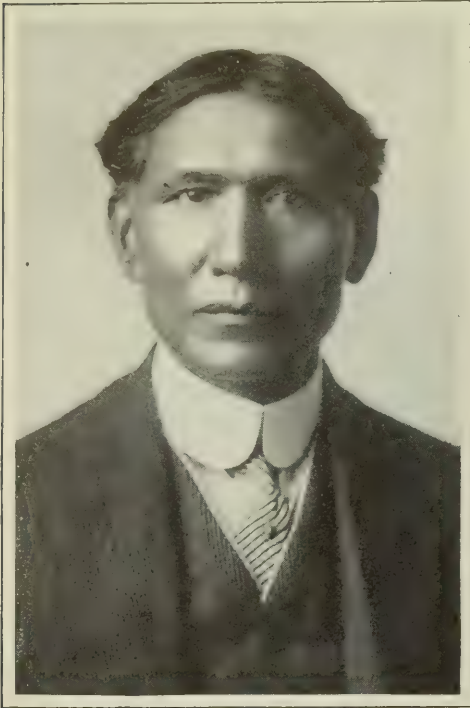
I do not think my generosity or my sense of deep and lasting friendship for my real friends can be questioned; but there is a higher obligation than any personal obligation: that is my obligation to the people of this country, who have put me in this place temporarily to administer their governmental affairs for them and who demand of me that I shall administer them for the people and not for the individual, even though that individual be myself or some one close to me.

Moreover, he went on, his voice vibrant with earnestness and sincerity, it is my firm impression that patronage ruins more potentially great men than any other one political influence. By that I mean that many a man who comes into public life hampers his true development by his devotion to patronage hunting, and his limitations thereby, more than in any other way.

The reader may have noted that a few topics of current interest did not get into Mr. Blythe's interview with the President,—for instance, the shipping bill, Mexico, the war in Europe. As to the latter subject, Mr. Blythe says that President Wilson is the most conscientiously neutral man of all neutral men. "I talked with him intimately for more than two hours and there was not a syllable from him about the great war; not an intimation that he knew there was a great war; not an opinion or a comment, though he has forty war problems before him every day."



# THE INDIAN'S HEALTH PROBLEM



DR. CHARLES A. EASTMAN (OHIYESA)

**A**MONG those who have been most familiar with the changed conditions of life imposed upon the American Indians there have always been pessimists who predicted the early extinction of the race. Yet, if the figures of the Government census are trustworthy, there has been for the past thirty years a slight but continuous increase in the total number of Indians.

Dr. Charles A. Eastman, himself a Sioux, writing in the *Popular Science Monthly* for January, deduces from this fact the hopeful conclusion that the race has reached and passed the lowest point of its decline and is beginning slowly but surely to recuperate. Nevertheless, he would not minimize the gravity of the large death-rate prevailing among the American Indians,—30 per thousand of the population, or double the average rate among white Americans. He calls attention to the further serious facts that about 70,000 Indians in the United States are suffering from trachoma, a contagious eye disease, and that probably 30,000 have tuberculosis in some form, while the death-rate from tuberculosis among Indians is almost three times that among the whites.

The change that took place in the Indian's

manner of living when he was brought within the restrictions of reservation life was undoubtedly a tremendous strain on his vitality. As Dr. Eastman points out, the Indian suffered severely from an indoor and sedentary life, too much artificial heat, too much clothing, impure air, limited space, and indigestible food. Dr. Eastman makes an exception in his statements of a few Indians like the Navajoes, who have always retained their native vigor and independence; but what he says applies to the typical "Agency Indian" of the Northwest. This Indian's home was a little one-roomed log cabin, about twelve by twenty feet in size, with a dirt roof and floor. This cabin was usually overheated in winter by a box stove, and the air was vitiated at all times, but especially at night, when there was no ventilation whatever. Families of four to ten persons lived in these huts. Contrast with the squalor of existence under such conditions the free life which had been the Indian's heritage before he came in contact with the white man:

Remember, these people were accustomed to the purest of air and water. The teepee was little more than a canopy to shelter them from the elements; it was pitched every few days upon new, clean ground. Clothing was loose and simple, and frequent air and sun baths, as well as baths of water and steam, together with the use of emollient oils, kept the skin in perfect condition. Their food was fresh and wholesome; largely wild meat and fish, with a variety of wild fruits, roots, and grain, and some cultivated ones.

The food that was furnished the agency Indian was often indigestible because he did not know how to prepare it, and various ailments resulted from this cause. Contagious and infectious diseases were prevalent, and even the simpler children's diseases, such as measles, were generally fatal. Dr. Eastman says that he has known women who were mothers of six or ten children to outlive them all, most of the children dying in infancy. All that could save the race from annihilation within a few years, as he views it, was its heritage of a superb physique and a wonderful patience.

Some serious mistakes have been made by the Government in its care of the Indian's health. In the early days the agency doctors were permitted to prescribe their pills and compounds without taking the trouble to make anything like a thorough examination of the patients. Even the old-time "medicine-man" was really more useful in those days, in Dr. Eastman's opinion, than the average

agency doctor. Then, too, the Indian schools were notorious for their poor sanitary equipment. Dormitories were shamefully overcrowded, and the result was an inevitable physical deterioration. In recent years, however, more stress has been laid upon sanitary precautions and hygienic instruction in Indian schools, and an effort has been made to carry this instruction into the Indian home through field matrons and others. Four sanatoria or sanitarium schools have been successfully established in suitable climates, and it is recommended by an Indian Service spe-

cialist that certain boarding-school plants be set apart for trachoma pupils where they can have thorough and consistent treatment and remain until a cure is complete.

Dr. Eastman is pleased to note that whereas a few years ago the Indians were reproved for placing their sick in canvas tents and in every way discouraged in any attempt to get out of their stifling homes into the life-giving air, sleeping-porches are now being added to their hospitals and open-air schools and sanatoria established for their children. Surely the Indian's physique is worth saving.

## COLONEL ROOSEVELT ON OUR RESPONSIBILITY IN MEXICO

EX-PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT is not one of those who hold that the administration at Washington has avoided interference in Mexico. Without regard to the question of whether or not the policy of interference was justifiable, Colonel Roosevelt maintains that the very refusal to recognize Huerta was an act of interference, and that, further, by sustaining friendly relations with the insurgents, and, at the same time, adopting an offensive attitude towards the *de facto* government, the United States virtually interfered in Mexican affairs. The transmission of arms over the border was permitted and forbidden at intervals. By this course Colonel Roosevelt contends that the administration showed that it was taking an active interest in the army of the revolutionists and was, therefore, responsible for it.

In Colonel Roosevelt's view this responsibility extended to the various acts of oppression and outrage that were committed by either of the factions that have been over-running Mexico for years past. In the *New York Times* Colonel Roosevelt has called attention to the attitude of the Carranza and Villa revolutionists towards the Roman Catholic Church. A decree issued by that party in September last includes the forbidding "of any services which will encourage fanaticism; the proscribing of any fasts or similar practices; the prohibiting of any money being paid for christenings, marriages, or other matters; the prohibiting of the soliciting of contributions (that is, passing of the plate); the prohibiting of the celebration of masses for the dead, or the celebration of more than two masses a week; the prohibiting of confession, and with this object in view, the closing of the churches except once a week at the hour

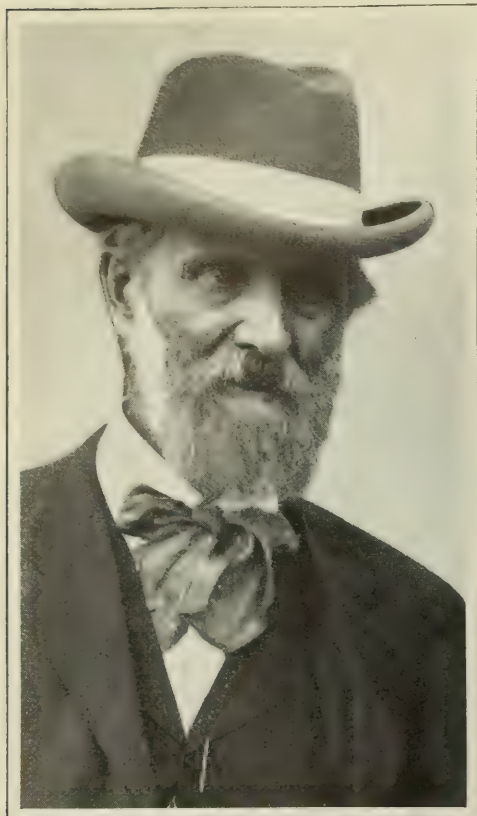
of the mass; and finally the prohibiting of more than one priest living in Toluca, and the requirement that he, when he walks in the streets, should be dressed absolutely as a civilian, without anything in his costume revealing the fact that he is a minister. In order to be permitted to exercise the functions thus limited, the priest is required to affix his signature of acceptance to the foregoing regulations."

Colonel Roosevelt's position is that such practices as those described in the decree may be properly criticized or commended by individual citizens, but that no one has any right to endeavor to make the government itself either favor or oppose them. He would emphatically disapprove of any action in any South American country which is "designed to oppress either Catholics or Protestants, either Masons or anti-Masons, either Liberals or Clericals, or to interfere with religious liberty, whether by intolerance exercised for or against any religious creed, or by a people who do or who do not believe in any religious creed." Although he holds that this should be our governing principle, he denies that it is the duty of this country to try to make other countries act in accordance with this principle, and above all he denies that it is the duty of our government to help some other government which acts against those principles with which we sympathize.

In addition to this attitude of the Mexican revolutionists towards religious institutions, Colonel Roosevelt brings specific charges, supported by affidavits, regarding particular offenses committed by the revolutionists against churches and religious orders for all of which he holds the government at Washington in a measure responsible.



## "JOHN O' THE MOUNTAINS"



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JOHN MUIR, THE NATURALIST AND WRITER

AS geologist, explorer, and interpreter of nature, John Muir, who died in California on December 24, was one of the small group of writers who have helped to make known the scenic glories of the Pacific Coast. He it was who crossed the Sierras when the trails were few and obscure, who found the Yosemite Valley and after years of campaigning persuaded Congress and the country to set apart that unique region as a National Park. It was Muir, too, "the Psalmist of the Sierras," who sang the praises of the giant Sequoia and the forest wealth of California and was one of the pioneers of the movement for water-shed and forest preservation. In Alaska he discovered the great glacier that bears his name and in California scores of smaller glaciers. His writings for many years have stimulated among his countrymen a love of Western scenery and a desire to conserve its beauties. Muir's influence in this direction was incalculable.

In the *California Outlook* (Los Angeles)

of January 2, Mr. Willoughby Rodman says of Muir:

When among his mountains, he was as simple as a child; easy of approach by all, ready to share his knowledge with any who sought it. I have seen him sitting on a log or a fragment of rock, surrounded by a group of eager listeners, talking for hours of the geology and botany of the surrounding country, answering many questions which to him must have seemed stupid or frivolous, varying his discussion with anecdotes of personal experiences, all told in the simplest style and in a manner which showed the kindly heart of the man.

He loved nature, and no exertion was too severe, no hardship too great that permitted him entrance into communion with her. With the eye of the poet he looked beyond the visible manifestations of nature and knew her deeper meaning; her spiritual significance. This feeling even he could not translate into words; it is best expressed in music.

In connection with him I think of Wordsworth's beautiful couplet:

"And beauty born of murmuring sound  
Shall pass into her face."

So the beauty born of nature passed into his spirit.

One of the most characteristic passages in his works is used as a motto by the Sierra Club.

"Climb the mountains and get their good tidings. Nature's peace will flow into you as sunshine flows into trees. The winds will blow their freshness into you and the storms their energy, while cares will drop off like autumn leaves."

Such was his mission—to call us from the sordid scenes of every-day life to the glad, free life of nature.

In the New York *Outlook* of January 6 ex-President Roosevelt, who knew John Muir intimately, says:

Ordinarily, the man who loves the woods and the mountains, the trees, the flowers, and the wild things, has in him some indefinable quality of charm which appeals even to those sons of civilization who care for little outside of paved streets and brick walls. John Muir was a fine illustration of this rule. He was by birth a Scotchman—a tall and spare man, with the poise and ease natural to him who has lived much alone under conditions of labor and hazard. His was a dauntless soul, and also one brimming over with friendliness and kindness.

He was emphatically a good citizen. Not only are his books delightful, not only is he the author to whom all men turn when they think of the Sierras and northern glaciers, and the giant trees of the California slope, but he was also—what few nature lovers are—a man able to influence contemporary thought and action on the subjects to which he had devoted his life. He was a great factor in influencing the thought of California and the thought of the entire country so as to secure the preservation of those great natural phenomena—wonderful canyons, giant trees, slopes of flower-spangled hillsides—which make California a veritable Garden of the Lord. . . . He had written me, even before I met him

personally, expressing his regret that when Emerson came to see the Yosemite, his (Emerson's) friends would not allow him to accept John Muir's invitation to spend two or three days camping with him, so as to see the giant grandeur of the place under surroundings more congenial than those of a hotel piazza or a seat on a coach. I had answered him that if ever I got in his neighborhood I should claim from him the treatment that he had wished to accord Emerson. Later, when as President I visited the Yosemite, John Muir fulfilled the promise he had at that time made to me. He met me with a couple of pack-mules, as well as with riding mules for himself and myself, and a first-class packer and cook, and I spent a delightful three days and two nights with him.

The first night we camped in a grove of giant sequoias. It was clear weather, and we lay in the open, the enormous cinnamon-colored trunks rising about us like the columns of a vaster and more beautiful cathedral than was ever conceived by any human architect.

All the next day Roosevelt and Muir traveled through the forest, when a snow-storm came on, and at night they camped on the edge of the Yosemite, under the branches of a magnificent silver fir. The next day they went down into the Yosemite and through the valley, camping in the bottom among the timber.

## HUNGARIAN AND SLAV MUSIC

THERE can hardly be found a single person among those who have any pretension to a taste for music who does not know and appreciate Liszt's Hungarian Rhapsodies. One of the minor blessings brought to us by the present war is the awakening of a renewed interest in Hungarian and Slav music,—in the half-barbaric and exotic compositions of Liszt, Tschaikowsky, and Dvorak.

The Hungarians and Slavs,—particularly the Slavs of southern Europe,—have a peculiar national history, one of many sharp transitions, of alternating freedom and oppression. They are still in some respects primitive,—their potentialities have not been exhausted; expression has been repressed rather than encouraged. Their fierce emotions have become the soul of their music. In it you may trace their national history, their nomad instincts, their beautiful affection for their native soil, the thousand-year-long struggle with the Turk and all the other factors that have entered into their national consciousness.<sup>1</sup>

Helen Ware, a violinist who has lived among the Huns and Slavs, and studied with their best masters, Sercik and Hubay, writes of "The Poetry and Power of Hungarian and Slav Music," in the January number of the *Southern Workman*. She says that with these people it is as natural for them to sing as to breathe:

The Hungarian scale is an absolutely original one. In their laconic form the songs present characteristic traits of strong individuality. To appreciate fully these truly inspired musical crea-

tions, one must meet the Hungarian and Slav peasants in their humble, straw-roofed houses, follow them to work in the fields, join in their merrymakings at the inn, spend some of the long winter evenings with them in the jolly company of their "cronies," tramp with them over the mountain side watching their sheep and cattle, and share their longing at the barracks while serving three years' compulsory military duty. Yes, one must join in the chorus of girls singing the slow "Csardas" and various Slav dances, linger with them at the fair while waiting for Fate to bring a mate, hear their merrymaking at a wedding, see the mother bend over the cradle singing a lullaby to her youngest born—in short, follow them throughout their primitive life seeking the language of the muse as the means of expressing sentiment and emotion.

This writer believes that there is a general misunderstanding about Hungarian and Slav music,—an impression that there is but little difference between them. She says:

In fact there is a wide distinction, which is found in the Hungarian and Slav temperament. Severe climatic conditions and lack of political liberty are factors influencing the Russians to the extent that an ultra-melancholy spirit has strongly permeated their life and music. The thousand-year-old history of Hungary also contains many a bloody chapter, yet the Hungarians have enjoyed personal and political liberty for generations, while their climate is ideal, with four definite seasons, furnishing endless variety, and influencing their spiritual endeavors, adding more color to their music than is usual in Slavic folk-songs.

Even in choosing their instruments the Hungarian and Slav races display a totally different judgment. The Bohemians excel in playing various wind instruments, whereas the Hungarians favor the strings and reed.

Again, in choosing subjects for their songs, we find that in the Hungarian folk-songs there are no cradle-songs, whereas the Bohemian and other Slav nations have beautiful compositions of that type. The Slav dance is written in three-four time, while the Hungarian differs from it in being in two-four or four-four time.

<sup>1</sup> In the "Heroic Ballads of Servia" (Sherman, French), one may find folk-ballads and fragments of half forgotten epics of the Slavs in Servia; and in "The Hungarian Fairy Book" (Stokes), the popular folk-lore of Hungary.



The article describes with eloquence the "supreme message" of the Hungarian folk-gipsy violinist composers of Hungary, among them the marvelous woman violinist, Czinka Panna.

With her magnetic personality and exceptional musical talent she soon became an idol of the people. To the oddity of being the only woman-violinist, she added more interest by her unusual appearance. Discarding her frills and frocks at an early age, she wore male attire throughout her brilliant career. According to her critics this strange fiddler could arouse her audiences to a frenzy of enthusiasm by her playing of Hungarian folk-songs, many of which were her own compositions. The beautiful gipsy did more perhaps than any other member of her race to introduce the Hungarian folk-songs throughout Europe. She married at fourteen, and, according to her will, was buried with her Amati violin, which was presented to her by the Archbishop of Hungary.

Remenyi, the violinist, first familiarized the American public with Hungarian music. On the great Liszt and his voicing of the

In his rhapsodies he portrays the human emotions with a master mind from the tragic depths of sorrow to the intoxicatingly rollicking dance. Beginning *poco-a-poco*, they grow wilder in their robust rhythm to the point where they reach the borderland of madness. Then with a master stroke, he brushes aside the wild dancers of the inn, and, in a lyric flute solo, forth comes the shepherd of the hillside playing his plaintive melodies on his native instrument. The last notes have hardly died away when, amidst the jingling bells and stampeding of horses, the young bridal pair arrives at the country inn. Once again we hear the gipsy band strike up the slow, majestic "Csardas." Throughout the dance one can feel the restraint, the great tension of pent-up emotions. He liberates the demons of the bands, and ends his rhapsodies in such a dizzying whirl that we are carried away with the buoyant spirit of it all, and the music loses its definiteness as a mere pleasing arrangement of sounds. For it becomes a mighty power, a giant that holds us in his grip and plays with our emotions as the waves with a helpless ball.

## THE IRISH THEATER IN AMERICA

MR. PADRIAC COLUM, one of the younger Irish dramatists, an original member of the Irish National Theater Society, is at present lecturing in this country

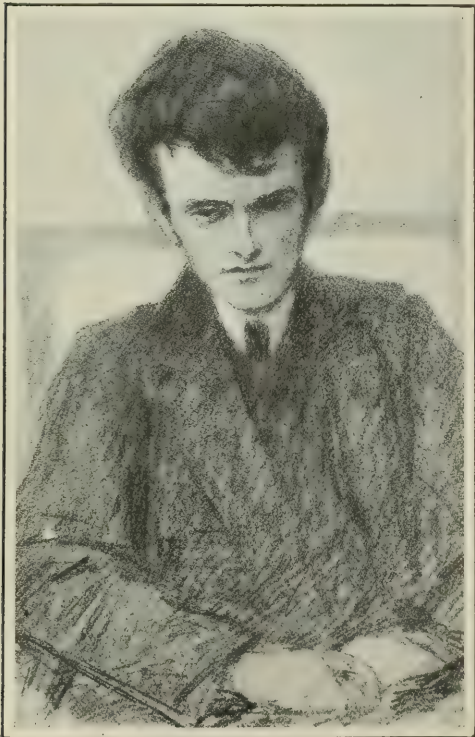
on "The Irish Theater, Its Tendencies and Ideals." His object is the fostering of Irish culture in America and the upbuilding of an Irish theater along the lines of the Abbey Theater in Dublin.

In a statement which Mr. Colum has made for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS in regard to an Irish theater for America, he writes:

The Irish people in America have created many valuable institutions for themselves, but they have neglected to build up an Irish daily paper and an Irish theater. It is easy to see why these two institutions are wanting. The Irish have not been aliens in language, and so they did not feel the need for a special news bulletin or a special place of entertainment; from the day of their arrival they were able to patronize the American theater and the American daily newspaper.

But this initial convenience leads to something like a loss at the end. The various nationalities in the American cities have each their distinctive theater as a radiating center for national culture. The German, the Italian, the Bohemian, the Yiddish-speaking Jew, come into contact through it with what is characteristically creative in their own people. Where a racial group has its theater it has vibrations of thoughts and emotions that are close to its own sod. Moreover, each distinctive theater keeps alive an interest in what is nearly the whole of national culture,—music and poetry, songs and stories.

Alone amongst the important nationalities the Irish have no distinctive theater. They owe it to their self-respect to establish one: until they have a theater of their own it will be hard for them to point to anything that stands for intellectual effort.



MR. PADRIAC COLUM

To keep alive a community interest with

the Irish people in Ireland is vital to Irish culture in America.

The race-idealist who would wish the Irish people here to form some community with the Irish people in Ireland would regard the project as important. For no political issue at home can hold together the people here and keep alive in them a racial consciousness as an attractive culture can. It is remarkable what John MacCormack's singing of Irish songs has done for the Irish people here! It has given them a sense of community with each other and with the Ireland of history and of their experience. No nationalist propaganda could have done as much. Now we wish to build up something that will foster and produce an Irish culture amongst our people here. This can be done best of all through the theater. We intend to work towards the foundation of this theater along such lines as the founders of the Abbey Theater in Dublin took when they started to build up an Irish theater fourteen years ago. They made up their minds to produce plays with small companies in small halls. Their authors were then forced to write such plays as could be inexpensively mounted and played by inexperienced actors on narrow platforms. We have the same acting material amongst the Irish in the American cities,—young men and women interested in the political or literary side of Irish life who attend Irish societies' meetings and who have enthusiasm and freshness of mind. We shall have plays produced once a month, beginning with February, and the writers and the players will become trained as we go on.

Mr. Colum analyzes the differences that must necessarily exist between the kind of plays presented at the Abbey Theater and those that would be suitable to a similar theater in this country. The Irish people in

the two countries do not care for the same plays.

The plays given will be different from the plays produced at the Abbey Theater in Dublin. If the Irish theater of America is to flourish it must have its roots in Irish life here and we must call upon those who live that life to furnish the bulk of the plays. We hope that our theater here will extend the scope of Irish dramatic literature. In Ireland that literature is mainly a presentation of peasant life. But the Irish people in America do not, at present, want to see peasant plays: most of them have come out of such households and they do not wish to come in touch again with the harshness and the sharpness of peasant life. That is a weakness in their character, a reader will say. It is, but it is a weakness that has to be taken account of by those who want to give them a theater. When they get used to the idea of an Irish theater here they will want to see played the notable peasant plays of the Abbey Theater. But for a while we shall have to deal with other material: our playwrights will probably take up the romantic side of present-day Irish life or they will strive to dramatize the romance in Irish legend and history.

If Mr. Colum's work in its entirety might be said to have one leading motive, it is "love of the land"—a theme which recurs again and again in his work—particularly in his dramas "The Land," "The Fiddler's House," and "Thomas Muskerry," and in his book of verse, "Wild Earth."

In the expression of the land-hunger of the Irish peasant who loves his bit of soil more perhaps than even his language and his church, he is at his best.

## A MARVELOUS NEW METAL

**S**UCH tremendous developments have followed in scores of instances from scientific discoveries that seemed at first mere curiosities of the laboratory,—witness radium, aluminum, the Röntgen rays, etc.,—that we must needs listen respectfully and expectantly to the report that there has been found in Asiatic Russia a wonderful new metal "more mysterious than radium."

According to *La Revue* (Paris) the discovery was made by an explorer in Naman-gan, which is a part of the territory of Ferghana. The savant in question chanced accidentally to place his hand on a pasty mass lying among mica and other minerals. This substance which was absolutely unknown to him was opaque in color and of noticeable heaviness. His curiosity being aroused he carried a considerable quantity of it to a chemical laboratory in Moscow, where he subjected it to a minute analysis and experi-

mented upon it with various reagents, with truly astonishing results.

In the presence of an acid, this metal, which as yet is nameless, generated such an excessive degree of cold that the glass vessel which contained the acid was immediately reduced to powder. Then an iron vessel was employed with the same result. The chemists continued the experiment with a large piece of granite. This was decomposed suddenly without either an explosion or an emanation of gas but with a stupefying lowering of the temperature.

Treated with an alkaline reagent, the substance, which stubbornly resisted every analytic process, lost 20 per cent. of its weight.

These astonishing results so engaged the curiosity of the scientific experimenters that they journeyed to Ferghana, and after patient research succeeded in gathering a larger quantity of this puzzling mineral, so as to be able to continue and extend their observations.



# THE NEW BOOKS

## THE DRAMA

"THE CHANGING DRAMA,"<sup>1</sup> by Archibald Henderson, the acclaimed historian and interpreter of contemporary drama, is written out of a fulness of understanding not only of the drama of the stage, but of the great drama of life itself. He epitomizes the drama of to-day as that of pity and revolt,—“pity for the lot of those less favored than ourselves, and revolt against the injustices of the social order.” In other words, the drama represents the “social fervor of the epoch.” The contributions of modern dramatists in technique, in evolution of forms, in ethical values, and the analysis of the prevailing tendencies in their work constitute the bulk of this work. Mr. Henderson agrees with Mr. Brander Matthews that in the art of characterization modern drama forces the actor to higher standards, to authenticity of emotional values, and a realization of a sublimated code of ethics. His book closes with the statement that “The dramatist of the future bids fair to be the Admirable Crichton in the Romance of Esthetics.”

“The English Drama,”<sup>2</sup> by Felix E. Schelling, professor in the University of Pennsylvania, gives us an invaluable history and commentary on English drama from the time of its beginnings in pageant and miracle play down to the performance of Sheridan’s “Critic,” in 1779. He perceives the drama as two threads,—that of literature and that of the acting play,—these two threads woven into noble texture together in the Elizabethan age, and pulled apart at the commencement of the last century, leaving the drama a thing of shreds and patches. We shall hope for a complete history of this “schism” and an account of the dramatic work of modern times from Professor Schelling’s able pen.

Mr. Brander Matthews, in his little essays on the art of acting,<sup>3</sup> rather discourages the playwright and emphasizes the reward of the successful actor. Not many of those who attend the performance of a play know or care to know its authorship, Mr. Matthews writes. This sparkling discussion of matters concerned with the stage is most entertaining reading. Among many other points of interest to lovers of good acting is the analysis of the difference that lies like an impassable gulf between the old school of acting, with its rough characterization, and the new. In our modern drama of realism the characterization is effected by sometimes the most subtle of means,—by “a gesture or only a look.”

The average layman in dramatic affairs hears very little of the “Free Theater” movement, that evolved the modern Naturalistic style of acting and revolutionized the ideals of French drama. Andre Antoine, its founder, has been called the

“Martin Luther” of the French drama of the last quarter of a century. For that space of time he has been a notable pioneer in the movement that has given an atmosphere of freedom to an art that has been rapidly growing in power, is still in a state of transition, and whose ultimate forms, ideals and purposes we are not at present able to wholly discern. Mr. Barrett H. Clark has translated four plays of Antoine’s “Free Theater,”<sup>4</sup> and has prepared a lengthy introduction to the volume, which is a gem of condensed information. Eugene Brieux has contributed a brief preface. Andre Antoine is a bourgeois—a bourgeois, as Mr. Clark writes, of the solid, forceful, intelligent type of Brieux,—a tall man, a little stooped, with small blue eyes, set wide apart, and large cheeks. He was born in 1858, at Limoges; circumstances compelled him to go to work at the early age of thirteen; later he became an employee of the Paris Gas Company. He loved the theater and studied unsuccessfully for the Conservatoire. He then joined amateur dramatic clubs where his acting received praise. Soon, however, his intellect rebelled against the plays these clubs produced; they missed the essentials and lacked the thrust of primitive emotion. Antoine gathered a few friends and sympathizers about him, and on March 30, 1887, the “Free Theater” came into existence in an “improvised playhouse in the Rue de l’Elysee des Beaux Arts, on the Butte Montmartre.”

Two comedies and two dramas were produced. All but one were failures. Nevertheless Antoine persevered, and when his funds again sufficed produced two more plays the following May. This performance attracted three great men of literary France,—Francisque Sarcey, Emile Zola and Alphonse Daudet. From this time onward, in spite of many vicissitudes, the “Theatre Libre” thrived, and at last located permanently in Jean Jullien’s “La Serenade.” In 1888, Antoine produced Tolstoy’s play “The Power of Darkness,” and later plays of Ibsen, Strindberg, and Björnson, together with the vital work of rising French dramatists. The French plays were daring, and in many cases highly unconventional. The “Four Plays,” published by Mr. Clark, are truly representative of the type presented at the “Theatre Libre.” “The Fossils” gives a picture of family clannishness that seems strange to the New World apostles of individualism. An entire family give up individually their fondest hopes, and even their honor, to preserve the family name. It is the work of Viscount François de Curel, whose plays have been termed a type of psychological melodrama. “The Serenade,” by Jean Jullien, tells a sordid story of the moral laxity that poisons the homes of France where the marriages have been arranged by the families and romantic love is not a factor in the relationship of husband and wife. “Françoise” Luck is a charming and delightful study of two characters,—a man of volatile temperament, kind but weak, who resents the bondage of marriage,

<sup>1</sup> The Changing Drama. By Archibald Henderson. Holt. 321 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> The English Drama. By Felix E. Schelling. Dutton. 341 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>3</sup> On Acting. By Brander Matthews. Scribner’s. 90 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>4</sup> Four Plays of the Free Theater. Authorized translation by Barrett H. Clark. Stewart Kidd. 257 pp. \$1.50.

and his clever young wife, who is subtle enough to play upon his vanity and keep his loyalty by means of what the husband calls "Françoise's Luck." "The Dupe," a comedy in five acts by George Ancey, is also a tragedy of the French marriage of convenience. The sheer exaggeration of the action serves to press home the moral that marriages undertaken for business reasons almost inevitably end in domestic tragedy.

Plays produced by local dramatic societies are distinguished in nearly every case by their intention to serve as a moral and social corrective to the community. For this reason several of the "Wisconsin Plays"<sup>1</sup> produced by the Wisconsin Dramatic Society are of unique interest beyond their technical value as literature and as acting plays. "Neighbors," by Zona Gale, is of the "Old Homestead" type of drama. It presents familiar rural types in a country village. They are preparing for the advent of a little orphan boy who has been given by his dead mother to a poor woman of their community. Each person gives as means will permit to the welfare of the orphan. The old grandmother, who has nothing but her

carpet rags, manages to make a grotesque, woolly boy-doll out of the rags.

"In the Hospital" has little sectional interest. The action might take place in any hospital in any civilized country. It gives a vivid picture of the leave-taking between husband and wife before she undergoes an operation that may prove fatal. The husband is alone on the stage during the time supposed to be used for the operation. "Glory of the Morning" is a tragic story of those far-off Colonial days when titled Frenchmen explored the waterways of the Middle West. A Chevalier of France has married a Winnebago squaw, who has borne him two beautiful children. The time has come for him to return to his titles and estates in France and he wishes to take the children with him. It is finally left to them to decide. *Oak Leaf*, the girl, is prevailed upon to go with her father. The boy, *Red Wing*, refuses to leave the wigwam and taunts his father in an outburst of passionate devotion to the Indian race: "You are a squaw-man. I am a Winnebago." This play has the undefinable atmosphere of genius and the poignant beauty of high and inevitable tragedy.

## BOOKS OF VERSE

THE volume of "New Poems by Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett Browning"<sup>2</sup> is interesting for the prose it contains rather than for the poetry. There are, indeed, twenty-nine new poems by Robert Browning and five by Mrs. Browning, but they are scarcely worth preservation save for those who have leisure to delve into all that bears remotely upon the life of genius. Nearly all of them were printed in the *Cornhill Magazine* last year. The chief value of this collection will be found in the admirable introduction by Sir Frederick G. Kenyon; in a letter on the early poems of Browning by the late Bertram Dobell; and in a "batch of notes"—fifty-six manuscript pages written by Mrs. Browning on the poems of Robert Browning while she was still Miss Barrett. These notes combine minor criticism with large appreciations. Browning was advised to simplify his abstruse phrases, pay more careful attention to rhythms, and correct his habit of continually using "inversions." The comment on "The Ride from Ghent to Aix" illustrates her expressions of admiration for the poet's work:

"You have the very trampling and breathing of the horses all through—and the sentiment is left in its right place, through all the physical force and display. . . . I know you must be proud of the poem, and nobody can forget it who has looked at it once. . . . By the way, how the 'galloping' is a good word. And how you felt it and took the effect up and dilated it by repeating it over and over in your first stanza . . . doubling, folding one upon another, the hoof-treads."

It is in these notes, as the editor observes, that the real interest of this book will abide, for they are part of a beautiful human "idyll"—the great

and enduring love of Elizabeth Barrett and Robert Browning.

The "Contemporary War Poems,"<sup>3</sup> published by the American Association for International Conciliation, and edited by John Erskine, show a distinct advance in our ideals of civilization over those that seem to have inspired Europe for the past quarter-century. The editor notes that one will not find the glamour of war in this collection, "no stirring battle songs and no heroic ballads." Only the horror, ugliness, and pathos of war are revealed; our American versifiers have conjured no vision of martial glory, they have discerned the long wrack of death and misery and the welter of destruction, that has submerged the art and the culture of Europe. The work of Edwin Markham, Percy Mackaye, Ella Wheeler Wilcox, Henry van Dyke, Edith M. Thomas and others is included in this collection. Before their consideration as literature, these poems must be judged as social documents that vividly picture the first shock of a foreign war upon the minds and the emotions of people of a peaceful nation, who are nevertheless bound to the nations at conflict by myriad strands of racial inheritance.

"From the Outposts,"<sup>4</sup> by Mr. Cullen Gouldsbury, author of "Songs of Exile," is a book of splendid ringing pictorial verse that carries one back to the jungle where the "Crocodile Kings reign. Capped in scarlet parrot's feathers, draped in gesture wild and weird, beaded, bangled, and barbaric, revered and rudely feared." Mr. Gouldsbury is called by his admirers the "Kipling of South Africa." Most of his verse was written during a ten-years' sojourn as a Government official in Rhodesia. The title poem, composed previous to the war, voices the fear that

<sup>1</sup> Wisconsin Plays. By Gale, Dickinson, and Leonard. B. W. Huebsch, 187 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>2</sup> New Poems by Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett Browning. Edited by Sir Frederick G. Kenyon. Two Portraits. Macmillan. 186 pp.

<sup>3</sup> Contemporary War Poems. American Association for International Conciliation. 43 pp.

<sup>4</sup> From the Outposts. By Cullen Gouldsbury. Fisher Unwin, Eng. 122 pp. 3/6 net.



England has fallen into decay, and emphasizes the intense loyalty of Englishmen stationed in the Colonies:

You have made a God of your Sport,  
Forgotten Work for the Game,  
While the Nations hover hawklike  
profiting by your shame.

Ours is the wider vision  
Under an alien sky,  
*We* know the sleek derision  
Of the Nations slinking by;  
We are glad enough to die  
Unnoted and unknown  
So be it we guard your Honor—for  
your Honor is our own.

"The Spirit of Japanese Poetry,"<sup>1</sup> by Yone Noguchi, is a distinct contribution to the literature of poesy. The author examines early Japanese poetry and that of present Japan,—the exquisite seventeen-syllable *Hokku* poetry, the "*No*" drama, the drama of symbolism and of silence; that to which our own "movies" may some day aspire, namely, poetry without words. The Japanese mind revolts at our subjection to rhymes and meters, against the silver singing of Swinburne and the golden lute of Tennyson. English poetry, to the Japanese mind, is governed too much by history and tradition. Mr. Noguchi thinks that the poetry of the East may bring a fresh spirit and a new medium of expression to Western poets. His book is most delightful reading; he inverts nearly all of our preconceived ideas as to what constitutes poetry. The Japanese method is poetry by elimination. He writes: "When our Japanese poetry is best, it is, let me say, a searchlight or flash of thought or passion cast on a moment of Life and Nature, which, by virtue of its intensity, leads us to the conception of the whole; it is swift, discontinuous, an isolated piece."

He would reduce Stedman's Anthology from 800 to 100 pages, which would do away with "poet-journalism." In Japan, the best poetry was produced when publication was most difficult. To the Eastern mind, easy publication is not the way to encourage poetry. The poet of all poets is Silence, the cosmic mood of the soul. The seventeen-syllable *Hokku* poems are the tiniest in the world; the *Uta* poems have only thirty-one syllables, and by their art "Heaven and Earth are moved and God's Demons invisible to our eyes are touched with sympathy." If you are not in agreement as to the value of these tiny poems, Mr. Noguchi bids you remember Browning's "God's in His Heaven,—All's Right with the World." This book is one of "The Wisdom of the East Series," edited by L. Cranmer-Byng and S. A. Kapadia, which has for its definite object

the promulgation of good-will and understanding between the East and the West, that the "twain shall meet" in a new agreement regarding ideals and philosophy that shall bring to the world the realization of its hope of the brotherhood of men that shall create peace and harmonious conditions upon the earth.

"America and Other Poems"<sup>2</sup> is from the pen of W. J. Dawson and represents the sifted choice of twenty years of his career as essayist, novelist, critic-historian, and poet. These poems are of great intensity and beauty. Notable among them are "Peace," "Extreme Unction," and "A Prayer."

Have you ever wished, when reading Kipling, that you had a dictionary of all the technical terms he uses? "A Handbook to the Poetry of Rudyard Kipling,"<sup>3</sup> prepared by Ralph Durand, will answer every need of the lovers of Kipling. All the camp argot of the British army and of the Royal Navy, explanations of archaic words and obscure expressions, together with much other useful and interesting information, are to be found in this excellent piece of work.

One of the new "Fellowship" books is an essay on "Poetry,"<sup>4</sup> by Arthur Quiller Couch. He defines a poet as a "helper of man's most insistent spiritual need."

The poems of the late Emily Dickinson have been published by her niece, Martha Dickinson Bianchi. They were written between the years 1848 and 1886,—the date of her death,—and were for the most part little love-offerings, sent sometimes daily across the green lawn that separated their houses to her "Sister Sue."

Her niece has written of her: "She was not daily bread: she was star-dust." Yet, after reading her diary of meditations, one cannot but decide that she was "daily bread" after all, so close do her poems come to our common, simple needs of every day. Emily Dickinson has been styled the "epigrammatic Walt Whitman." She lived not so much in her own solitary soul as in the soul of the race, seeing clearly beyond individual desires to the larger needs of mankind. The collection takes its title from a quatrain, "The Single Hound"<sup>5</sup>:

Adventure most unto itself  
The Soul condemned to be;  
Attended by a Single Hound,—  
Its own Identity.

<sup>2</sup> America and Other Poems. By W. J. Dawson. John Lane. 152 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> A Handbook to the Poetry of Rudyard Kipling. By Ralph Durand. Doubleday, Page. 386 pp. \$2.

<sup>4</sup> Poetry. By Arthur Quiller Couch. E. P. Dutton. 60 pp. 50 cents.

<sup>5</sup> The Single Hound. By Emily Dickinson. Little, Brown. 151 pp.

<sup>1</sup> The Spirit of Japanese Poetry. By Yone Noguchi. E. P. Dutton & Co. 118 pp. 70 cents.

## OF ARTISTS AND THE FINE ARTS

READERS who are fond of browsing among *memorabilia* of the distinguished departed will find rich pastures for their delectation in the new book of reminiscences by J. Comyns Carr, which he gives to the world under the clever and witty title of "Coasting Bohemia." It is made up of a group of thoroughly delightful essays, imbued with the graces of a felicitous and finished style such as is rarely met with in these days, and spiced with wit,—oftentimes the wit of the great ones it commemorates as well as that of the veteran art critic and dramatist, its author.

Among its treasure trove are personal recollections (all worthy because richly mellowed by the passage of many years) of Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Millais, Alma-Tadema, Whistler, George Meredith, Sir Henry Irving, and Sir Arthur Sullivan; each finely wrought essay casting some new and illuminating sidelight on the work, or more often the personality, of the artist of whom it treats. There is an elaborate and thoroughgoing study of the character of Lady Macbeth, entitled "Sex in Tragedy," in which the author contrasts the interpretations of that character by Mrs. Siddons and Mrs. Kemble, and vindicates the more feminine conception of the older actress. There is a discriminating and readable survey of the English School of Painting, originally written for the Rome Exhibition. And there are several minor papers of interest and charm.

For sample of the author's witty characterization and happy knack of expression take his saying of Whistler: "To balk him of a controversy was to rob him of his peace of mind"; and this of Meredith: The true greatness of the man was in nothing better displayed than in the unbroken urbanity of his outlook upon life. His was of all natures I have known the most hopeful of the world's destiny. The starved and shriveled pessimism of the disappointed egoist had no part in his disposition. His wider outlook upon life was undimmed by the pain of whatever measure of personal failure had befallen him, and I believe that even if his faith in humanity had not of itself been sufficing and complete, he could have drawn from the earth, and the unfading beauty of the earth, encouragement enough to keep him steadfast in his way."

A big subject handled with surprising skill and power in a small book is Edith Sichel's "The Renaissance,"<sup>2</sup> a new issue in that surpassingly fine and useful series of handy volumes called the Home University Library. In ten brief but pregnant chapters we get in bold clear strokes the outlines of the Medici in Florence, the Renaissance in Rome, the women of the Renaissance, its cynics and swashbucklers, the thinkers it raised up in the Northern races, the French Renaissance, and the English Renaissance; and learn what its fruits were: out of the Italian Renaissance, a new-born art; out of the Northern Renaissance, a new-born religion, and coupled with it a great school of poetry, and a drama the greatest that the world has seen since the days of Greece. At

the very outset we get this fine definition of the real meaning of the new birth: it was "the result of a universal impulse, and that impulse was preceded by something like a revelation, a revelation of intellect and of the possibilities in man. And like the Christian revelation in the spiritual world, so the Renaissance in the natural, meant a temper of mind, a fresh vision, a source of thoughts and works, rather than shaped results." The little book is more than a splendid piece of writing,—it is an inspiring stimulus to the reader to further study in a fascinating period of human history.

In "The Boston Symphony Orchestra: An Historical Sketch,"<sup>3</sup> M. A. DeWolfe Howe gives a clear, succinct and interesting account of what is undoubtedly the greatest musical benefaction ever bestowed upon any public. One regrets that more space than the brief preliminary chapter was not given to the life of Major Henry Lee Higginson, the founder and supporter of the orchestra, for besides serving his country with distinction in the Civil War, and afterwards as banker and philanthropist, Major Higginson has proved himself an artist for art's sake,—or rather for humanity's sake. But the account of the orchestra, which has now completed a third of a century of existence and is considered by many the best orchestra in America, if not in the world, will be welcome to music lovers in many other quarters besides Boston, for it has carried the gospel of the best music all the way across the continent. Mr. Howe has had access to materials never before put into print, especially contained in papers relating to Mr. Higginson's more personal dealings with the enterprise, and his narrative is authoritative as well as readable. The book is illustrated with several portraits, and a group of appendices lists the musicians who have been members of the orchestra, the soloists who have appeared at its concerts, and the compositions it has performed.

William Gorham Rice's "Carillons of Belgium and Holland: Tower Music in the Low Countries,"<sup>4</sup> is a very pleasant book, but withal one to which a melancholy interest attaches just now by reason of the havoc wrought by the German savagery among the places he describes so delightfully. His love of this unique tower music led him to investigate its history, which meant to delve in obscure lore, and the result is the first book ever published on the general subject of carillons. As distinguished from a chime, or peal (that is, a set of bells generally not more than about an octave, attuned to intervals of the diatonic, or whole tone, scale), a carillon is a much larger set of bells, sometimes four octaves or more, tuned to the chromatic scale, and hung fixed, so as not to swing. The bells are struck by hammers operated from a keyboard, and a good bell master can play a great variety of music, even such difficult works as sonatas by the great composers, and produce remarkable and distinctive effects. The qualifications of a good

<sup>1</sup> Coasting Bohemia. By J. Comyns Carr. Macmillan. 278 pp. \$2.50.

<sup>2</sup> The Renaissance. By Edith Sichel. Holt. 256 pp. 50 cents.

<sup>3</sup> The Boston Symphony Orchestra: An Historical Sketch. By M. A. DeWolfe Howe. Houghton Mifflin. 280 pp., ill. \$2.

<sup>4</sup> Carillons of Belgium and Holland: Tower Music in the Low Countries. By William Gorham Rice. Lane. 232 pp., ill. \$1.50.



carillonneur are compared to those of an organist. Mr. Rice tells us not only of the bells and their players and their music, but as well of many other things that help to make up the charm of the Low Countries, and the interest of his book is enhanced by a series of beautiful photographs of many of the famous bell towers of Belgium and Holland, which are at the same time surpassingly fine examples of architecture, together with other pictures of carillons at close range and portraits of some of the famous bell masters.

With the purpose of arousing interest in the development of the dwelling house and from such interest some consideration of the reforms in it demanded by the present and the future, Robert Ellis Thompson has written a readable and useful little book in "The History of the Dwelling House and its Future."<sup>1</sup> The reforms for which the author pleads include both mechanical changes for the better adaptation of the house to the needs

of the family, and social changes, chiefly to be found in the application of cooperative method, to bring the families out of their isolation into a plan of working together for the relief of social burdens. Most of his suggestions are both sensible and constructive, and his book deserves a wide reading.

"How to Enjoy Pictures,"<sup>2</sup> by Mrs. Henry Head, a publication imported from England, is addressed to young people, in whom it seeks to stimulate an interest in and a fondness for masterpieces of painting produced before the beginning of the nineteenth century. It is mostly made up of brief biographical sketches of painters, with comments on some of their pictures emphasizing those features which the author thinks are most likely to stimulate the interest and imagination of the youthful reader. The many reproductions of celebrated paintings printed in colors are garish and far from satisfactory.

## REFERENCE AND TEXT-BOOKS

PARTLY as a result of methods that have obtained for generations in the study and teaching of the Scriptures, our youth do not, as a rule, become familiar with the national history of the Hebrews. Most of our educated young men and women know less about the dramatic story of the Jewish people than about the rise and fall of ancient Rome, and yet no people's records are more accessible than are those of the Jews. Probably the truth of the matter is that the Old Testament has not commonly been regarded in the light of a national history, although a more perfect example of historical narration would be hard to find. It is fortunate that the value of the Biblical narrative purely as historical material is more clearly recognized than formerly. With such aids as modern scholarship is providing, the coming generation should know its Hebrew history at least as well as its Roman or Grecian. One of the most serviceable of these aids has just come from the press in the form of a "History of the Hebrews,"<sup>3</sup> by President Frank K. Sanders, of Washburn College. This is an admirable text-book of the subject, compact, clearly written, and the fruit of thirty years of well-directed study. No one who dips into this little volume will be inclined to question the importance or the intrinsic interest of Hebrew history. The more or less familiar Bible story will be made the more vivid by a rereading in connection with the analysis and comments of Dr. Sanders, who is one of the group of enthusiastic scholars that was attracted to Yale a quarter of a century ago by the late Professor William R. Harper, a teacher who succeeded in filling so many of his pupils with his own zest for the study of Hebrew.

Curious facts about the various forms of life ex-

istent and extinct are given in "The Wonder of Life,"<sup>4</sup> an unconventional introduction to the study of Natural History and Biology, by J. Arthur Thomson, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Natural History in the University of Aberdeen. It is truly a "wonder" book, one of the best published in recent years, and valuable not only for its detail of the whole drama of organic evolution, but also for its suggestiveness. The material is presented with originality, piquancy and freshness, and the text is accompanied by exquisite illustrations in half-tone and in color.

What is a weed in the agricultural sense? The dictionary tells us that a weed is the general name of a plant that grows where it is not wanted; of any plant that is regarded as positively useless or troublesome. The lovely Prairie Rose, the scarlet Field Poppy, the showy Larkspur and the Black-Eyed Susan are all weeds in some places, and come under the same classification that embraces the lowly pigweed and the pestiferous quack grass. "A Manual of Weeds,"<sup>5</sup> prepared by Ada E. Georgia, assistant in the Farm Course at the New York University, is a book every farmer and student of botany should possess. It is excellently prepared and eminently useful. Every species of weed that infests the United States and Canada is discussed, with their range, habitat, crops they infest, and means of control. Weeds are shown to be not wholly valueless. Their encroachment makes good tillage necessary, and a generous growth of weeds turned under provides fresh humus for the soil. The book amply fulfils the writer's wish that it shall be "helpful to any one who loves plants and must combat weeds in order to help them to grow." It is freely illustrated with drawings by F. Schuyler Matthews, who has done some excellent work in this field.

<sup>1</sup> The History of the Dwelling House and Its Future. By Robert Ellis Thompson. Lippincott. 172 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> How to Enjoy Pictures. By Mrs. Henry Head. Stokes. 299 pp., ill. \$1.50.

<sup>3</sup> History of the Hebrews. By Frank K. Sanders. Scribners. 367 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> The Wonder of Life. By J. Arthur Thomson. Holt. 658 pp., \$3.50.

<sup>5</sup> A Manual of Weeds. By Ada E. Georgia. Macmillan. 593 pp., ill. \$2.

# CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

## BOOKS RELATING TO THE WAR

**The War Week by Week.** By Edward S. Martin. Dutton. 217 pp. \$1.

A fair and moderate statement of the American point of view, as expressed in the editorials appearing in *Life*.

**Woman and War.** By Olive Schreiner. Stokes. 59 pp. 50 cents.

A selection from the classic, "Woman and Labor," giving expression to the author's views as developed during the South African War.

**The Balkan Wars, 1912-1913.** By Jacob Gould Schurman. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 140 pp. \$1.

A second edition of President Schurman's study of the situation in which the Great War in Europe originated. A preface by the author points out the relation of the Balkan Wars to the greater conflict now being waged.

**The Cause of the War.** By Charles Edward Jefferson. Crowell. 64 pp. 50 cents.

An able analysis of the European situation by the pastor of Broadway Tabernacle, New York City.

**Handbook of the European War.** Edited by Stanley S. Sheip. White Plains, N. Y.: The H. W. Wilson Company. 334 pp. \$1.

A source book of facts regarding the war, gathered from the standard authorities, official and unofficial.

**The Evidence in the Case.** By James M. Beck. Putnam. 200 pp. \$1.

An American lawyer's thoroughgoing analysis of the causes of the war as revealed by the official papers. Mr. Beck was formerly Assistant Attorney-General of the United States.

**Fighting in Flanders.** By E. Alexander Powell. Scribners. 231 pp., ill. \$1.

A brilliant and graphic account, by an eyewitness, of the bombardment and fall of Antwerp, the destruction of Louvain and other Belgian towns, and the flight of the refugees. Pronounced by the London *Spectator* to be "one of the most memorable books of first-hand description dealing with the war."

**With the Allies.** By Richard Harding Davis. Scribners. 241 pp., ill. \$1.

Describes the Germans' entry into Brussels, the burning of Louvain, the bombardment of Rheims Cathedral, and many other incidents of the war as seen by a correspondent on the ground.

**Britain's Case Against Germany.** By Ramsey Muir. Longmans, Green. 196 pp. \$1.

A succinct survey of the historical background of the war by the Professor of Modern History in the University of Manchester.

**Remember Louvain!** Selected by E. V. Lucas. Macmillan. 86 pp. 40 cents.

A collection of poetry bearing on the British attitude in the Great War. Selections have been made from the verse of Whittier, Longfellow and Walt Whitman, as well as from representative English poets.

**Little Old Belgium.** By Reginald Wright Kauffman. Philadelphia, Pa. Henry Altemus Company. 79 pp. 50 cents.

A little book of poems, some of which were composed within the theater of war.

**The Present Hour.** By Percy Mackaye. Macmillan. 119 pp. \$1.25.

Half of this volume is made up of poems composed since the outbreak of the war, and the remainder of selections from poems written during the past two years and having reference to peace.

**The War That Will End.** By H. C. Wells. Duffield. 106 pp. 75 cents.

A series of characteristic essays by the author of "Tono-Bungay."

**Operations Upon the Sea.** By Freiherr von Edelsfeld. New York: The Outdoor Press. 107 pp. 75 cents.

A treatise written by a member of the German General Staff in 1901. It includes a discussion of plans for the invasion of England and the United States.

**France and the Next War.** By Commandant J. Colin. Translated by Major L. H. R. Pope-Hennessy. Doran. 306 pp. \$1.

The modern French system of war-making as set forth by a leading professor in the national War School. It is the text-book used by French officers in preparation for their duties.

**Fatherland.** By Will Levington Comfort. Doran. 58 pp. 25 cents.

The protest of Europe's millions against war, as voiced by an American.

**An Open Letter to the Nation with Regard to a Peace Plan.** By James Howard Kehler. Kennerley. 25 pp. 50 cents.

An essay intended to direct public thought toward the ideal of peace instead of toward the ideal of war.

## SOCIOLOGY: ECONOMICS

**Municipal Life and Government in Germany.** By William Harbutt Dawson. Longmans & Company. 499 pp. \$3.75.

Mr. Dawson's book is not one of the numerous brochures hastily scribbled that have been foisted upon the public since the outbreak of the War in order to meet the demand for information about



Germany. It is a very thorough and painstaking study of municipal government by an Englishman who has spent a quarter of a century in preparing himself for the preparation of volumes upon different phases of German life. Those who would understand the nature of government by experts in German cities and the practical results, as well as the official mechanism, will find Mr. Dawson's book very satisfactory.

**Money and Currency.** By Joseph French Johnson. Ginn. 423 pp. \$1.75.

This revised edition brings Professor Johnson's review of monetary and banking legislation in the United States up to date,—with a careful analysis of the Federal Reserve Act of 1913.

**Why the Dollar Is Shrinking.** By Irving Fisher. Macmillan. 233 pp. \$1.25.

States very simply the general principles which fix the scale of prices, and shows how these principles apply to the present "high cost of living."

**Political Economy.** Charles Gide. Heath. 762 pp.

Authorized translation from the third edition of a standard French work, with notes especially prepared to meet the needs of American students.

**Business Organization and Combination.** Revised edition and additional Chapters. By Lewis H. Haney. Macmillan. 523 pp. \$2.

**Corporate Promotions and Reorganizations.** By Arthur S. Dewing. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 615 pp. \$2.50.

A new volume in the series of "Harvard Economic Studies."

**Work and Wealth: A Human Valuation.** By J. A. Hobson. Macmillan. 367 pp. \$2.

A severe indictment of "the inhumanity and vital waste of modern industry," with the suggestion of definite remedial measures.

**Economics of Efficiency.** By Norris A. Brisco. Macmillan. 385 pp. \$1.50.

A book designed to make clear the underlying principles of business efficiency and to explain the resultant methods.

**The Finances of the City of New York.** By Yin Ch'u Ma. New York: Columbia University. 312 pp. \$2.50.

A Chinese student has investigated New York City's finances and finds several points of resemblance to the finances of China! For instance, in the recent past, much of the city's annual tax budget has been due to extravagance, waste, favoritism and corruption, as a result of the rule-of-thumb method of budget-making. Again, the municipal debt has been permitted to grow, until recently, without any attempt to keep it down by the introduction of scientific methods of administration, just as the national debt of China has been suffered to increase. Fortunately, reform has made a start, both in New York and in China.

## OUT-OF-DOOR AND NATURE BOOKS

**Letters of an Old Farmer to His Son.** By William R. Lighton. Doran. 212 pp. \$1.

In this little book an exponent of the new agriculture sets forth the principles rather than the detailed methods of his craft.

**The Business of Farming.** By William C. Smith. Cincinnati: Stewart & Kidd. 292 pp., ill. \$2.

A practical, common-sense treatise by the author of "How to Grow 100 Bushels of Corn per Acre on Worn Soils."

**Farm Animals.** By Thomas Forsyth Hunt and Charles William Burkett. New York: Orange Judd Company. 534 pp., ill. \$1.50.

An excellent illustrated manual by the dean of the California College of Agriculture and the editor of the *American Agriculturist*.

**Wealth From the Soil.** By C. C. Bowsfield. Chicago: Forbes & Company. 319 pp. \$1.

The beginner in farming will find here practical suggestions by the author of "Making the Farm Pay"—first aid to the city-bred farmer.

**Indian Days of the Long Ago.** By Edward S. Curtis. Yonkers: World Book Company. 221 pp., ill.

An entertaining and instructive book by the well-known photographer of Indian life. The volume is illustrated from photographs by Mr. Curtis and drawings by F. N. Wilson.

**Insects Injurious to the Household.** By Glenn W. Herrick. Macmillan. 470 pp., ill. \$1.75.

A clearly written description of the principal insect pests, their habits, and the means by which their propagation may be checked.

**Growing Bulbs.** By Maurice Fuld. New York: Knight & Struck Company. 78 pp. \$1.

Specific directions for the cultivation of bulbs designed for winter and spring blooming are contained in this little book.

**The Fraternity of the Fields.** By Elmer Willis Serl. New York: Neale Publishing Company. 133 pp.

A readable series of brief essays from the out-of-doors viewpoint.

**An Introduction to the Study of Fossils.** By Hervey Woodburn Shimer. Macmillan. 450 pp., ill. \$2.40.

In this work the author's principal aim has been to show how certain living forms in the vegetable and animal kingdoms may be used to interpret the related fossil forms.

**The Fundamentals of Plant Breeding.** By John M. Coulter. Appleton. 347 pp. \$1.50.

An extremely interesting and inspiring treatment of the latest discoveries in the field of plant genetics. As head of the botanical department at the University of Chicago, Professor Coulter is

familiar with the recent striking developments in this field.

### Concerning Animals and Other Matters.

By E. H. Aitken. Dutton. 196 pp., ill. \$2.

A collection of essays, chiefly on animals and Indian subjects, by the Anglo-Indian writer who was known for many years as "Eha." Characterized by a lively sense of humor.

### The Germ-Cell Cycle in Animals.

By Robert W. Hegner. Macmillan. 346 pp., ill. \$1.75.

This volume embodies knowledge of special value in scientific breeding.

### Forest Neighbors.

By William Davenport Hulbert. Doubleday, Page. 241 pp., ill. 50 cents.

Life stories of wild animals that have dwelt on the banks of a little lake in the woods of northern Michigan.

### Big Game Fields of America.

By Daniel J. Singer. Doran. 368 pp., ill. \$2.25.

Accounts of the author's observations of wild life during big-game hunting trips in North and South America.

### Wild Life Conservation in Theory and Practise.

By William T. Hornaday. New Haven: Yale University Press. 229 pp., ill. \$1.50.

The director of the New York Zoological Park endeavors in this volume to stimulate the interest of university men in the preservation of American wild life. The material originally took the form of lectures delivered last year before the Yale Forest School.

### The American Natural History.

4 Vols. By William T. Hornaday. Scribners. 1255 pp., ill. \$7.50.

A most readable description of American animal life, illustrated with original drawings, photographs, charts, and maps. The first edition of this work appeared in 1904 and met with general approval. In the new four-volume edition such changes have been made as were rendered necessary by the scientific advance of a decade.

## ESSAYS AND ADDRESSES

### The Future of Work and Other Essays.

By L. G. Chiozza Money, M. P. T. Fisher Unwin. 296 pp. 6 shillings.

Mr. Money is an English economist and Liberal member of Parliament who is especially qualified to discuss concrete phases of industrial life in Great Britain. His ideal is an organized economic life under the direction of the government, with a vast increase of production through the better development of labor, and a higher harmony to prevent the waste of competition.

### England's Peasantry and Other Essays.

By Augustus Jessopp, D. D. T. Fisher Unwin. 398 pp. 7 shillings.

The Rev. Dr. Jessopp writes charmingly of English country life, with its survivals of old manners and customs. His essays give the spirit also of religious and social life in country parishes. The present volume, with its wealth of

reminiscences and literary allusions, and its tone of leisurely scholarship, is in delightful contrast with the many strenuous and shrieking books which characterize our stormy days.

### The Vengeance of the Flag and Other Occasional Addresses.

By Henry D. Estabrook. Fleming H. Revell Co. 372 pp.

Mr. Estabrook, who is one of the most eloquent members of the American Bar, dedicates a current volume of his addresses to a little grandson whom he characterizes as, "Thinker, Philosopher, Orator, Investigator, Pugilist, and Man of Projects and Affairs." Quite unconsciously Mr. Estabrook is listing his own attributes. There must be supplied, however, the further attribute of Wit and Humor. Mr. Estabrook's dinner speeches are as clever as any that have been printed, while his legal addresses show scholarship and virile thought.

## REMINISCENCES

Personal Recollections of President Abraham Lincoln, General Ulysses S. Grant, and General William T. Sherman. By Major-General Grenville M. Dodge. Fort Dodge, Ia.: Monarch Printing Company. 237 pp.

General Dodge is one of the few surviving officers of high rank who served in the Civil War, and he has made a great career as citizen and man of affairs in the half century that has followed the close of civil strife. His reminiscences of Lincoln, Grant, and Sherman are very informal, and are published in a modest book issued in his home town of Council Bluffs, Iowa; but they will be much prized for the sidelights they throw upon men and events.

## BOOKS DEALING WITH GIRLS' PROBLEMS

The Other Kind of Girl. Anon. Huebsch, 198 pp. \$1.

A simply told, inoffensive story of a girl who took the path of least resistance and became a woman of the street. The factors that bring about her regeneration are told in a manner to point out the mistakes of would-be reformers.

The Industrial Training of the Girl. By William A. McKeever. Macmillan. 81 pp., ill. 50 cents.

An excellent informational book giving detailed information about the training of young girls for usefulness and toward a larger and richer personality; with insistence on the fact that industry is "cultural and ennobling."

Talks to Freshman Girls. Helen Dawes Brown. Houghton Mifflin. 90 pp. 75 cents.

Pleasant and stimulating admonition to the college girl in her Freshman year.

Working Girls in Evening Schools. By Mary Van Kleeck. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 252 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Information given by 13,000 working girls who attend classes regularly at evening schools. A most suggestive study of their needs and ambitions.



# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—OPPORTUNITIES IN HIGH-GRADE SECURITIES

**A**LTHOUGH the London Stock Exchange opened on January 4, after its continuous suspension of more than five months, and trading continued on the New York Stock Exchange with a gradual rise in prices, it became evident as the new year opened that no enthusiastic absorption of new securities at least need be at once expected. Indeed, the cautious dulness on the New York Stock Exchange had never before been equaled. Day after day new low records for volume of trading were being made. Nineteen Fourteen witnessed the smallest stock business since 1878.

In every way the early days of the new year bade fair to repeat, or even intensify, the stagnant investment conditions of 1914, although at times there seemed to be a slow increase in interest. In the old year listings of new securities on the Stock Exchange had been a quarter less than in 1913, only one-third those of 1912, and one-half the 1911 total. Corporate financing, as far as it could be traced by a leading publication, amounted to half a billion dollars less in 1914 than in 1913. Issues of securities in London for the seven months to August 1 last amounted to \$950,000,000, and for the four months from August 1 to December 1, to less than \$30,000,000.

As the year opened it appeared that numerous fundamental conditions were working into a state favorable to an industrial revival in this country. The lowest prices known in years in all lines of construction material, together with plentiful labor, made a strong appeal in the private business field to individuals and corporations who were able to go ahead with their plans without resorting to the security markets. But large undertakings, which involve public financing, could not be started, because where public financing is concerned the European situation must always be more or less considered, and as yet there was no knowing how long the war would last. Belligerent countries, along with several neutrals that had been put to unusual government expense because of the war, were putting out huge government bond issues, and apparently the markets of

the world were unable to absorb other classes of securities until government financing had been taken care of.

But a notable, although not unexpected, feature of the situation has been the way in which a few issues of really high-class securities have gone off with a rush. It is the universal experience of investment history that immediately after periods of stress high-class securities sell relatively far better than those of poorer quality. A few months ago, when bond-dealers began once more almost timidly to offer their wares again after the temporary but complete stoppage of such business, it was chiefly the municipal bond that was offered, this being admittedly the safest investment both in theory and practise. Indeed, even to this writing the bulk of day-to-day investment offers are made up of municipals.

### *Two Recent Bond Sales*

Many investors seek a little more than safety and certainty of income. They seek for bonds or stocks which possess at least the possibility of enhancement in price. No doubt the deservedly popular real-estate mortgage would be even more popular if it had any opportunity of advancing in price. Of course, the investor does not want his holdings to go down, and any amount of loss comes from the usually unwise attempt to combine safety with speculation. Now, this may be a very illogical, inconsistent, and reprehensible state of mind, but it is most common. Pure investment, *i. e.*, the absolute surrender of any proprietary interest, and along with it any possibility of loss or gain, is singularly rare. And, facing facts as they are, it may be noted that one of the surest ways of combining investment, strictly speaking, with profit, is to purchase newly issued securities of a high grade. This was illustrated last September when New York City was dangerously close to repudiating its debts, through no fault of its own, and a combination of all the banks in Greater New York gave the public sale of \$100,000,000 of its short-term notes such a backing that failure was impossible. However, the notes themselves were so attractive that the

banks did not have to subscribe to any extent, the public being alive to the truly wonderful opportunity afforded. The notes were offered to pay 6 per cent., a patently high yield for the obligation of the largest and richest city in America. Only a few days passed before all who had purchased (more than ten thousand persons) had a large profit on the transaction.

Much more recently the sale of \$10,000,000 Chicago & Northwestern Railway general mortgage 5 per cent. bonds at 102½, or a net yield of 4.87 per cent., illustrated the general truth which this article seeks to emphasize. This was the first large issue of long-term railroad securities to try the investment market in this country since the war began. Within a few days after these bonds were publicly offered for sale at 102½ they were being dealt in on the Wall Street market at 107½, or a profit of \$50 on each \$1000 bond.

The investor must be cautioned not to buy into any new bond issue, merely because it is newly offered. The point is to buy into a newly offered bond, *provided it is of the highest class*. That other opportunities will be afforded not unlike those of the New York City note and Northwestern bond sales is most probable.

It must have been obvious to anyone familiar with the affairs of the Chicago & Northwestern Railway that its general mortgage bonds at 4.87 per cent. were essentially a bargain. The reason they were offered on the bargain counter was the same reason that New York City notes were sold to yield 6 per cent.: the times were so unpropitious for any investment offering that to make the thing go with enough of a rush to maintain the corporation's already unexcelled credit, as well as to give the whole situation a needed fillip, it was essential to make the price strikingly attractive.

Thus in 1908 the first big issue of bonds sold after the panic was \$40,000,000 of Pennsylvania Railroad consolidated 4's, probably in many ways the world's premier railroad bond. They were offered at a price to net 4.20 per cent., at that time an attractive rate of interest for that type of bond, but almost immediately after the public offering the price rose until the net income fell to 4 per cent.

It was, therefore, no reflection on the Chicago & Northwestern Railway that its general mortgage 4's should be sold at 4.87 per cent., even though that was probably the highest yield obtainable in many years on a

bond of such high grade. These bonds are a first lien on 1800 miles of road, a second lien on 2700 miles, and a third lien on 530 miles. Before long they will be a first lien on 5000 miles. According to one computation, it requires but \$240 a mile to cover all interest charges, while available income exceeds \$2500 a mile. Persons with only the slightest knowledge of railroads know that even the common stock of this company, which comes far, far after the general mortgage bonds, enjoys an enviable reputation for strength and safety.

#### *Railroad Securities Again Attractive*

Numerous developments are serving to bring the better class of railroad securities again into favor. Naturally the 5 per cent. freight-rate decision is the most conspicuous of these. But other recent events are important. The rapid approach toward a long-fought-for consummation of the plans to merge the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railroad into the New York Central Railroad means that the numerous issues of bonds of the latter-named company will have an added security. Probably the same is true of its stock. It has also been recently announced that the New Haven Railroad would seek legislative permission to create a large mortgage upon its property, and issue ultimately, so report goes, at least \$400,000,000 of mortgage bonds in place of the many short-term securities now outstanding. Such an event will make most decidedly for stability of New Haven finances.

Finally, it appears from the recent report of the Controller of the Currency that the 26,765 banks from which he had reports as of June 30, 1914, had added \$145,000,000 of railroad bonds to their holdings during the year. Previous reports had indicated a tendency to reduce railroad bonds. Clearly it is time for a reaction in favor of railroad securities of the better type. Many investors in the past have wholly neglected public utility bonds and real-estate mortgages in favor of railroad bonds, a fact to be deprecated. But, on the other hand, the downfall in the last few years of several poorly managed railroads has swung many persons too far away from what is, after all, the most important type of security, and the one which gives the cue to all others. Certainly when there are numerous absolutely "gilt-edged" mortgage railroad bonds to be had to pay 4¾ per cent., or even 5 per cent., as now, those who are content with that rate of interest need not go much further afield.



## II.—INVESTMENT INQUIRIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 615. STREET IMPROVEMENT BONDS—A RE-STATEMENT OF THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

In response to your generous invitation to investors to consult you in regard to investments, I wish to ask for some information in regard to California Street Improvement Bonds, offerings of which I have seen advertised in the pages of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. Are these bonds safe and desirable? I have some \$5000 that I wish to invest.

California Street Improvement Bonds, as we have had frequent occasion to point out, have a good record for safety. The laws of the State appear to throw every safeguard about the issuance of this class of obligations, and, although such bonds never have, and probably cannot be expected ever to command, a particularly satisfactory market, many cases have come under our observation in which they have proved desirable income investments.

Such bonds, as you probably know, are not the direct obligations of the municipalities themselves, and they are not, therefore, backed up by the general taxing power. On the contrary, they depend for the safety of their principal and interest upon the tax-paying ability only of such property as is situated within the limited districts for whose improvement they are issued. In cases where all of the necessary legal requirements are complied with, street improvement bonds carry a lien on the property in their district, which comes ahead of everything except general taxes, and in that sense they partake very much of the nature of real estate mortgages. You doubtless appreciate how essential it is for any investor going into a highly specialized form of security like this to deal with investment bankers upon whose experience and judgment he may safely rely.

It may not be amiss for us to suggest that for a fund of the size you mention we doubt that in ordinary circumstances it would be wise for you to choose a single security or even a single class of securities. Indeed, we know of very few circumstances in which it does not pay for an investor to practise the principle of diversification. With your legal residence in California and desiring, as you probably do, to have something in the nature of tax-exempt securities, we would suggest for a part of the fund in question one or two bonds taken from the rather wide range of offerings of publicity utility companies of your own State.

### No. 616. IS THE PRESENT A GOOD TIME TO BUY STANDARD STOCKS?

Would you consider the present an opportune time to buy standard railway and industrial stocks? If so, which ones would you suggest as being suitable investments for a woman who now has a few shares each of Pennsylvania; Delaware & Hudson, and American Tel. & Tel.?

While it is still very difficult to foretell the market outlook for standard listed dividend-paying stocks, there seems to be a disposition among those in close touch with the situation to believe that purchases for income purposes made at prevailing prices should, if confined to the better entrenched issues, prove entirely satisfactory. As you may know, trading in the entire group of listed stocks has now been going on for several weeks with certain restrictions, however, as to minimum prices below which transactions cannot have official sanction. In arranging for open trading the committee which had charge of all

transactions in listed securities from the outbreak of the war registered its belief that a considerable part of the danger of the foreign liquidation in the market had been disposed of for the moment at least. Indeed, since the resumption of trading, there has undoubtedly been a good deal of such liquidation, but it has been taken care of in a quiet and orderly fashion. Whether the pressure from this direction is likely at any future time to become so strong as to cause lower prices than those already touched is something which cannot, of course, be determined. So that it is probable that the market will continue for some time to come to be conducted under the restrictions referred to, which every one recognizes are wise, even if arbitrary.

Considering the stocks now being held in the list to which you refer in particular, we think if we were in your place, we should take under consideration now issues like Great Northern Preferred and General Electric as representing the best established dividend payers of the two respective classes of rails and industrials.

### No. 617. NEW RURAL CREDIT MACHINERY

Will you kindly advise me of the names of the officers and the address of the company recently organized, or about to organize, for the purpose of loaning money to the farmers of this country for long periods? This company, I have been given to understand, is highly capitalized and is backed by some of the richest men in New York.

We do not know of the existence of such a company. For two or three years there has been a great deal of talk about the organization of a company to conduct on national lines a business of making loans on the security of farm land, but we believe the plans for such an institution have not progressed very far. We suspect that in this connection a great deal will depend upon the character of the rural credit legislation, which is certain to be taken up by Congress sooner or later.

You might possibly be interested in the farm-loan legislation enacted at the last session of the New York State Legislature. As this is being written it is expected that the Land Bank, for which this legislation provides, will soon be in operation. The scheme is an experiment, the outcome of which will be watched with interest. It is based upon the building and loan association idea, and like the established associations of this kind, the new institutions will operate under the supervision of the State Banking Department.

### No. 618. FOR THE EMPLOYMENT OF A SMALL INVESTMENT FUND

I should like to have some advice from you. I am on a moderate salary but have a few hundred dollars that I wish to invest. I know little about securities. It is not my desire to get rich all at once. I shall be content with interest of from 4 to 6 per cent.

Under circumstances like these we believe you would find the right kind of investment opportunity in the category of sound bonds issued in small denominations. As illustrating the kind of investments of this variety now available we might mention bonds like the following, which appeared in a recent list of offerings made by one of the several firms of specialists in securities for small investors: Swedish Government 6 per cent. notes, due in 1916, to yield at present prices approximately 5½ per cent. and Province of Alberta 4½'s, to yield about 4¾ per cent.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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HON. FRANKLIN K. LANE, SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, WHO REPRESENTED THE  
PRESIDENT AT THE OPENING, ON FEBRUARY 20th, OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC  
EXPOSITION AT SAN FRANCISCO

Before President Roosevelt brought him to Washington to make his fine seven-years' record on the Interstate Commerce Commission, Secretary Lane had served his adopted city of San Francisco in high offices, and was California's most typical Democratic leader. Since President Wilson was detained at Washington, it was especially fitting that Mr. Lane should have represented him at the opening of the Exposition. His power and felicity in public speech are not less marked than his wisdom and efficiency in dealing with the many complex problems of his Department.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 3

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*"Bread,"—  
the Demand  
and Supply*

Never before, perhaps, has the word "bread" appeared so frequently in the newspapers as since the beginning of the present year. This is due to the disturbed conditions of trade, rather than to any marked alteration in the factors of demand and supply. The food crops of 1914 were large, and except for small areas they were successfully harvested. The number of people to be fed is not greater by reason of the war, but on the contrary it grows perceptibly less, while the merely wasteful and extravagant uses of food material have been greatly limited. Europe is now entering upon the eighth month of the great war. In any case, in peace or in war, Europe would, through those eight months and through three or four months yet to come, have had to rely upon the cereals produced in 1914 for its supply of breadstuffs.

*Ease of  
Normal Distri-  
bution*

What, then, has produced the conditions that have been so alarmingly set forth in the newspapers? In ordinary times, the process of distribution goes on evenly and without being brought to the public mind. The European workman, whose standard loaf, whether of dark bread or of white bread, is his foremost food article, has not been accustomed to the thought of a failing supply or an increasing price. The world's surpluses of wheat, rye, and barley enter with the most perfect ease and mobility into the ramifying currents of international trade. A bad crop in one country is atoned for by a good one elsewhere. Thus Europe's industrial worker has seldom known any difference as regards the supply of his daily bread. The ordinary rates of ocean freight on cereals from the United States and Canada, Argentina, India, and Australia, are very low; while in normal times the rye, barley, and wheat of Russia, Hungary, and eastern Europe move readily and constantly by coastwise steamer, river and canal barges, and the railroad network, to the more densely peopled industrial regions of southern and western Europe.

*Conditions in  
Russia, Eng-  
land, France*

But since the war broke out the traffic systems have been paralyzed, and the markets greatly deranged. Throughout the vast Russian Empire there has been an ample supply of food, with a low tendency of price. This is because of the shutting off of the German market, and the difficulties in exporting grain surpluses,—due to hostile conditions in the Baltic on one side and the Black Sea on the other. Great Britain is most dependent; but the British navy has hitherto made it easy for merchant ships to bring food supplies to England from all quarters of the globe, so that the situation as to supply and price has been virtually normal. Very little complaint has come from France about scarcity of bread,—or, indeed, about anything else. Thus far there has been no apprehension of food shortage in any one of the three large allied powers.

*Belgians' Need  
of Food*

The most acute trouble has been in Belgium. This has been due to the various misfortunes that attend the ravages of war on a great scale. Large supplies of food were requisitioned by the armies. Other supplies were destroyed through the burning of houses, barns, and stacks of grain. Horses were largely drawn into military service, and other farm animals were to a great extent slaughtered for food. The stoppage of industry destroyed the earning capacity of hundreds of thousands of people, who were thus rendered unable to buy food, even if the military conditions had not interfered with the bringing in of commercial supplies. Under these circumstances, the demand for bread in Belgium grew desperate; and so it has come to pass that a very large part of the population has lately been sustained by the relief from the United States that has taken on an organized and systematic form, as already described in this REVIEW. Most positive assurance is given by the Americans having most to do with this relief that the German military and civil authorities in Belgium have not failed to coöperate.





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## THE BREAD LINE AT MALINES, BELGIUM

(The people of Malines waiting in line before the Commissary of Police to receive each a loaf of bread)

erate, and that nothing sent for the aid of the Belgian people has been turned to German benefit.

*Belgian  
Recuperation*

It must be remembered that populations can adapt themselves to unwelcome situations; and it would be quite erroneous to suppose that seven million Belgians are remaining in a state of unspeakable misery, doing nothing to help themselves, and appealing to the charity of the world. On the contrary, they are helping themselves and one another to the utmost of their ability, and they are waiting for spring to open in order to resume the cultivation of their lands and to produce as large supplies of vegetables and grain as they possibly can. It is to be observed that they have German encouragement in this course. They will be very much handicapped by shortage of horses and other farm animals, but they will doubtless produce large food supplies this year, many unemployed factory-workers turning their energies to garden and field. It is said that somehow the Belgians managed, in the autumn, to sow considerable areas of the winter wheat and other cereals that will be ready for harvest in early summer. Belgium will doubtless need help for some time, but when the war cloud is lifted and her industries can be set in motion again she will pay her own way without much difficulty,—easily buying the surplus foods that her people may need. The German occupation seems likely to continue for a time.

*Poland's  
Distress*

There are other spots ravaged by war where there is food shortage and distress. The conditions in these places are somewhat analogous to those produced in San Francisco by the great fire, or in a central district of Italy, in January, by the earthquake. Thus Poland has seen so much marching and counter-marching of armies, with destruction of hundreds of villages and thousands of farms, that many of the people are in great distress, although it would be impossible to believe in the accuracy of an extended statement issued by the Polish author; Sienkiewicz, in the middle of February, from his vantage-point in Switzerland, purporting to give exact statistics as to the condition and needs of fifteen million Poles. The allegations of fact in that appeal to America were upon their face less credible than the most extravagant pleas that have been issued on behalf of Belgium. Doubtless the condition of the Polish people is bad enough; and it justly appeals to the sympathy and aid of the world.

*Seeds and  
Tools for  
Serbia*

More credible are the claims to sympathy and help that are made on behalf of the people of Serbia. They have shown great heroism and have put forth a degree of energy in resisting invasion that nobody had thought possible. Their needs have been none too strongly stated, and the current appeals through committees headed by Professor Pupin and Madame Grouitch are worthy of prompt response.

Madame Grouitch, in particular, has asked Americans to help the thousands of small Servian farmers by furnishing means to obtain a supply of seeds and tools for their spring work. The best form of help is that which enables willing workers to help themselves. Supplies in Servia have run so short that without assistance the people will find it impossible to obtain that prime necessity of farm regions,—the seed with which to invite the forces of nature to grant their kindly co-operation. Even in times of peace we have often had crop shortages in the West that have made it necessary for the State itself to advance to farmers the requisite supply of seed-wheat and seed-corn for the next crop. It is not strange, then, that Servia should ask for seed after so terrible a struggle as that in which she is still engaged, following the two severe wars that had only recently preceded. A letter to this REVIEW from a distinguished Montenegrin statesman informs us that in his little country there is also great distress; and if some share of American bounty should go to those brave and undaunted people who are fighting with Servia it would be most worthily bestowed.



DR. IVAN YOVITCHÉVITCH, SECRETARY-GENERAL OF THE COUNCIL OF STATE OF MONTENEGRO

(This high official and publicist writes us that there is great distress among the common people of Montenegro, who lack for bread and clothing. His interesting estimate of the war and its outcome will be found in this number of the REVIEW)

*Food in  
Austria-  
Hungary*

When, however, the whole field is surveyed, it is not possible to discover any great shortage of food; and severe distress seems to be limited to ravaged localities, such as Belgium, Servia, and Poland. Hungary is one vast granary, and except in Galicia the Austro-Hungarian Empire has not as yet suffered vicissitudes that have added the pangs and suffering of famine to the general sorrow and misery of war. On the contrary, there seems to have been thus far no shortage of food in that empire, nor any serious prospect of that kind. Wheat has been going to Austria from Italy, in exchange for lumber to use in constructing temporary houses in the earthquake region. But what of the terrible privations of the starving millions of Germany,—about which a vast deal has appeared in the American and English newspapers?

*Germany's  
Food Supply*

The hypothesis that Germany is desperately suffering for food had become the more significant last month because it lay at the base of diplomatic contentions. It was supposed to underlie the new and harsh declarations of beligerent policy that formed the chief topic in the American and European press. Regular readers will remember that in our November number we published an important contribu-

tion from Professor Carver (of Harvard University and of the Department of Agriculture), on the European food situation. Mr. Carver, after a careful survey of available facts, came to the conclusion that all of the countries engaged in the war could maintain necessary supplies of starchy food, though they might suffer some shortage of other kinds. He reached the conclusion that Germany and Austria would probably have no serious trouble in providing as much food as was needful, both for civilians and soldiers. Dr. Dernburg, in a companion article, presented in the same number of the REVIEW, wrote of Germany's food supply and undertook to show that for a period of at least two years Germany would be able to cope successfully with the problem of self-maintenance. He chose the period of two years, because he preferred to deal with concrete facts rather than with predictions or general estimates.

*Does Germany  
Lack Bread?*

It becomes interesting to know whether anything had happened in three months to disturb the best calculations of the experts of our own Department of Agriculture, or to subvert the statements and assurances of Dr. Dernburg. The newspapers have somehow given many American readers the impression that Ger-



many's fate was depending upon the decision of an English prize court in the matter of allowing the food cargo of the *Wilhelmina* to proceed to its destination. This impression had been added to by the manner in which the German Government's new control over breadstuffs had been made to appear as indicating the approach of famine conditions. So far as we can ascertain, nothing has happened to weaken in any respect the statements and predictions made in our articles by Professor Carver and Dr. Dernburg. Everything in Germany is now virtually upon a governmental basis, including the production and distribution of necessities for civilian as well as military use.

The "War  
Wheat  
Company"

On January 11, for instance, all Prussian flour mills were ordered to make and sell only a mixture known as "war flour," containing seven parts wheat and three parts rye. The Government of Prussia had formed a trading concern known as the War Wheat Company, which was to buy up and store about seventy-five million bushels of wheat, to be held back from sale until after May 15. The shares of the company were taken by the Prussian Government, the principal German cities, and some large industrial concerns. This company is permitted to pay 5 per cent. interest, and it has power to buy stocks of wheat, either by voluntary transfer or by condemnation at fair price. The whole object is to benefit the public by preventing undue speculation in wheat during the months that must precede the harvesting of the next crop. The German authorities explain that there is a very ample supply of rye in storage, and some shortage of wheat. Thus the bakeries are required to bake rye bread at night for the supply of the working people in the morning, and they bake the "war flour" bread and rolls in the daytime for those accustomed to white bread. This is not an indication of desperate conditions in Germany, but rather an instance of that foresight and thrift with which German officialdom is accustomed to handle affairs of common concern.

Civilian  
Rather than  
Military

The English and American idea that this action of the associated municipal bodies of Germany in forming the "War Wheat Company" has militarized food supply, and has therefore given the quality of contraband to all cereals destined for Germany even though shipped in neutral vessels, seems to us to be wholly mistaken and without justification. There had

been no evidence to show that the wheat carried by the *Wilhelmina* would become a part of the grain that was being purchased for distribution after May 15. The municipal governments, in conjunction with the Prussian Government and business concerns, were not acting on behalf of the military authorities, but rather on behalf of the whole mass of common people, whose bread supply was thus assured. The flour mills and the bakers were to be supplied at fair prices after May 15, and the Government's action was intended to have a salutary effect upon all those who were storing and hoarding food supplies, with a view to exorbitant profits in the months that must elapse before the crop of 1915 becomes available. Instead of giving a military character to the bread supply, this German action seems to us to have given it a decidedly civilian guarantee. The wheat company is formed upon the plan of our own administration's ship purchase project.

[This Year's  
Crop in  
Germany

But what of the coming crop in Germany? So far as we can learn, there was exceptional effort made, under direction of the public au-



ON ACCOUNT OF THE SHORTAGE OF FLOUR!

"The bakers until further notice will bake only air doughnuts."

(This cartoon is from the latest copy of *Kikeriki*, of Vienna, and it may be assumed that its tone would not be so cheerful and humorous if the bread shortage had become desperate)



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

#### TURNING PARADE GROUNDS INTO PEOPLE'S GARDENS

(This scene shows the plowing-up of the great army drill and parade ground near Berlin, as the first step in preparing it for the spring planting of vegetable gardens and potato patches by the poorer citizens. This may be taken as typical of what is going on around all of the German cities, where thousands of acres will be converted into gardens within the next few weeks)

thorities and patriotic societies, to see that the fall planting of wheat and other cereals was not neglected. Except in a part of East Prussia, there was no interference with German agricultural processes. Some kinds of manufacturing were curtailed, and many of the men thus thrown out of employment were sent to the fields to take the places of those who had been called to arms. Women and children in great numbers are accustomed to work in the fields in Germany. Furthermore, prisoners of war to the extent of many scores of thousands were assigned to farm work of one kind or another. Doubtless in Germany, as elsewhere in Europe, there is a shortage of horses and domestic animals. But it seems to be true that more traction machinery than ever before has been brought into use. There are great expanses of agricultural land in France, Belgium, and Germany that lie level enough to render it feasible to use traction plows. Nothing could be more mistaken than the notion that practically all farming operations in those countries are intensive and on a very small scale, so that heavy machinery cannot be used. Europe's fields will not lie fallow in 1915.

Very particular attention has been devoted in Germany to plans for thrifty gardening in the neighborhood of towns and cities, and to the obtaining of food supplies for human beings and farm animals from the stretches of sugar-

beet land which have ordinarily furnished the English people with a great part of their sugar supply. Thus, so far as our best information goes, the German people, considered as a whole, are not suffering for bread and are carefully conserving their supplies of cereals to prevent the danger of their having any days or weeks of famine fear or food panic. Naturally, they are willing to pay American prices and import a certain amount of grain as an insurance against the unforeseen. For nobody can say as yet whether the crops of 1915 in any given country may be unusually bountiful or exceptionally meager and lean. The chances are that war conditions will have diminished the use of suitable fertilizers and lowered the average of skill and care in the selection of seeds and the successive processes of cultivation. Yields per acre, therefore, are likely to be a little less than the average. But the sum total of products immediately available as food supply may prove to be the largest in the history of Germany. No one, indeed, can tell what new portions of the face of agricultural Europe may be trampled under foot of vast and ruthless armies, and ruined by hundreds of miles of trenches before the harvests of 1915 are garnered. It is in these terrible hazards of war, even more than in the uncertainties of nature's response, that the food problems of particular countries are fraught with grave concern to those most interested.

*Gardening  
and Thrifty  
Foresight*



*American  
Crop Prospects*

What, then, of our own agricultural prospects in America? It has been assumed on all hands that,—favorable weather conditions being granted,—we shall produce the greatest food crops in our history, and that the farmers will receive very high prices for everything that they can raise. Assertions of this kind have generally been made, and they have met with little if any contradiction. First, then, as to the quantities: The forecasts are all favorable. In the winter-wheat belt, high prices stimulated increased acreage in the sowing time last fall, and indications are that the hardy little covering of green, which always thrives best under a blanket of snow, has borne the winter's freezing and thawing fairly well. In the northern, or spring wheat belt,—including Minnesota, the Dakotas, and the Canadian Northwest,—preparations are making for as large a wheat acreage as possible. The yields and prices of the 1914 crop have justified the grain farmers in buying fertilizers and trying to stimulate a large yield.

high prices will be maintained. The spurt which has sent the price of wheat so high in the past few weeks is not due to a shortage of breadstuffs or to famine conditions anywhere. It is due to those factors that are termed "psychological." Just as soon as market conditions become a little more normal, it would seem to us that food prices must tumble rapidly. For the prospect is that there will be a large supply, over against which there will be a diminished purchasing power which amounts to a lessening of the effective demand. The real facts of food supply have not justified the recent high prices of wheat; and there has been no intrinsic reason for the advance in the price of the standard loaf from five cents to six cents that was made by the leading bakers of New York in the middle of last month. In spite of the great shipments out of America's bumper wheat crop to England and other parts of Europe, there had remained an abundance of grain for home consumption until well after the great Kansas harvest will have begun to enter the market.

*Will High  
Prices  
Prevail?*

With favoring conditions of weather, we may expect, therefore, very large crops of all the cereals. It is not so certain, however, that

*Wheat Is Now  
Unreasonably  
High*

If our institutions of general and municipal government were like those of Germany, nothing would have been easier than the public acquisition of



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

#### AN ILLUSTRATION OF CURRENT GERMAN THRIFT

(In Berlin, public wagons are passing through the tenement districts, exchanging kindling wood for the potato parings from the kitchens. This is another instance, not of distress, but of minute organization and careful foresight. The potato parings are useful for making alcohol, which in Germany is a substitute for gasoline)

an ample supply of wheat at a fair price,—and this without much affecting the average price that the farmers have received. It must be remembered that last year's wheat crop was largely sold from the fields, at the time of harvesting or thrashing, to elevator companies and grain dealers who control the long lines of elevators that follow the railroad tracks into the wheat regions. Very lucky are those farmers who have averaged a dollar a bushel on last year's wheat. Most of the difference has gone to those who have bought up and controlled large quantities, exercising their mastery through the possession of the storage elevators, or grain warehouses. There was much talk last month,—and, indeed, there were bills introduced in Congress and in State legislatures, as well as ordinances in city councils,—concerning the control of speculation in foodstuffs, and the artificial forcing-up of prices by methods known as "cornering." There ought, of course, to be some sort of remedy; but ordinarily the market adjusts itself fairly well.

*Some Farm Problems*

As regards various kinds of food supply, it is unduly difficult and expensive for American producers and consumers to come together. Those who are discouraged, however, should remember that conditions are incomparably better in this respect than they were in earlier times. The population of our cities and manufacturing districts has grown with immense rapidity, and the food supplies of the world are drawn upon to meet the demand of great population centers, like New York, for example. The supply of such articles as breadstuffs comes to be standardized, and the transportation rates are no more than the railroads ought to receive. The farmer's problem, as respects wheat, corn, and standard crops, is one of yield rather than of price. Thus the average yield per acre of winter wheat in this country is about 15 bushels, and of spring wheat about 17 bushels, whereas in England, France, and Germany the yield is very much larger. The average seems to be increasing a very little in this country, rather than falling off.

*Our Farming Remains "Extensive"*

Secretary Houston, in his admirable and statesmanlike report for last year, comforts us by making the following observations:

It can scarcely be that the American farmer has not as much intelligence as the farmer of other nations. It is true that the American farmer does not produce as much per acre as the farmer in a number of civilized nations, but production



©American Press Association, New York

SECRETARY HOUSTON AT HIS DESK IN THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT AT WASHINGTON

per acre is not the American standard. The standard is the amount of produce for each person engaged in agriculture, and by this test the American farmer appears to be from two to six times as efficient as most of his competitors. Relatively speaking, extensive farming is still economically the sound program in our agriculture, but now it is becoming increasingly apparent that the aim must be, while maintaining supremacy in production for each person, to establish supremacy in production for each acre. The continued solution of the problem here suggested is one which now seriously engages the attention not only of the agricultural agencies of the several States but also of the Federal Government.

Only those who have occasion to read the agricultural press and examine the countless bulletins of the Department at Washington and the experiment stations in the various States, can even faintly realize the efforts that are being made to improve American agriculture by obtaining better average results, while maintaining the fertility of the soil. We are publishing in this number of the REVIEW some articles that indicate the kind of work that is going on.

*Illustrations of Progress*

Thus Mr. Powell, of the Agricultural College of Illinois, writes of the improvement of the wheat crop through the breeding and use of the best kinds of seeds. Such experiments are carried



on with great patience, and in the end they are worth millions to our farmers. We have at former times called attention to the largely increased yield of corn under favored circumstances, due to the new knowledge that has been widely disseminated regarding the breeding and selection of seed. We are also publishing an article in this issue by Professor Fraser of the dairy department of the Illinois College of Agriculture, which presents the conditions of dairy-farming as they now exist throughout the country. Here again the farmers are immeasurably indebted to the Department of Agriculture at Washington and to the demonstrations made on the farms of the State agricultural colleges for the kind of guidance that is bringing about a vast change in a farm industry that has of late been so greatly developed in Denmark, Switzerland, England, and parts of our own country. Another of our contributors explains the methods by which the Government, through the Bureau of Animal Industry at Washington, spends millions in helping to deal with the diseases of farm animals. It might be easy to show that for every million spent by the Government there is saved to the resources of the country a value fifty or a hundred times as great. The foot-and-mouth disease, tuberculosis in cows, the ravages of hog cholera, the "Texas fever,"—these are some of the great scourges which are only kept from sweeping across the country with appalling consequences through the scientific knowledge and the vigilant methods of our public authorities.

*Cotton  
and the  
Farmers*

One of the reforms in American agriculture that the authorities have most urgently preached for years has been a greater diversity of farming in the South. But cotton production is a system by itself, and it has been very hard to transform the Southern cotton-grower into the type of the independent Northern and Middle Western farmer who rotates his crops, keeps a variety of livestock, has a good garden and small fruit, and is not overwhelmed by the failure of any particular crop in a given season. The South has perhaps needed the terrible lesson it has received in the sudden fall of the cotton price last fall to a point below the cost of production. Mr. Spillane, who at that time wrote so notable an article for this REVIEW on the cotton crisis, writes for this number upon cotton's recovery. The prospect of a much-reduced acreage, as the cotton-growers are now soon to plant the crop, will be noted with especial interest.

*Dr. Houston  
on the  
South's Needs*

More than any other portion of the civilized world, our own South needs to learn the lesson and acquire the habits of agricultural thrift. Secretary Houston's report deals with these matters in the most instructive and convincing way. He shows that American poultry products alone are worth half a billion dollars a year, or 50 per cent. of the total value of the cotton crop. And he declares that the South enjoys unusual opportunities for producing its own supply of swine and poultry, yet the present deficiency is marked. Take the following, for example, from the Secretary's readable report:

While in Iowa the average farm has 6 milch cows, in North Carolina and Alabama it has less than 2, and in South Carolina 1. While in Iowa the average farm has 35 hogs, in North Carolina and Alabama it has less than 5, and in South Carolina less than 4. While in Iowa the average farm has more than 108 head of poultry, in North Carolina and Alabama it has less than 20, and in South Carolina less than 17. An investigator has recently said that the average farm home in Georgia produces less than 2 eggs a week; about two-thirds of an ounce of butter and two-thirds of a pint of milk a day; one-third of a hog, one-twelfth of a beef, and one one-hundredth of a sheep a year for each member of the family; and that the cotton crop of the State does not pay the State's food and feed bill. No Southern State is giving sufficient attention to the production of foodstuffs either for human beings or for live stock. A conservative estimate indicates that Texas imports from other States annually more than \$50,000,000 worth of wheat, corn, and oats; Georgia more than \$24,000,000; South Carolina more than \$20,000,000. Twelve Southern States import more than \$175,000,000 worth of these three commodities and \$48,000,000 worth of meats, dairy products, and poultry products. It may be admitted that most of these States should not undertake the production of these commodities for foreign or interstate shipment in competition with the great States of the Middle West, but every student of the subject must recognize the unwisdom of the neglect to produce enough of these things for the consumption of their people and for the laying of the foundation of a prosperous live-stock development.

*Improvement  
Well  
Begun*

In short, the important thing is to turn the ordinary cotton-raiser into a real farmer. Already, however, the worst is past. The great campaign of farm demonstration carried on in the South by the Department of Agriculture and the General Education Board has produced appreciable results. Thousands of boys in the so-called "corn clubs" are proving that with the right kind of farming the average yield per acre can be not merely doubled but increased fourfold. Thousands of girls in the "canning clubs" are learning the value of practical gardening in connection with

farm homes. The State agricultural colleges are now carrying on a propaganda of practical reform, and in a number of the States agriculture has been introduced as a necessary subject in the common schools. The high prices of land in the Middle West have made it profitable once more to bring back to fertility the impoverished and abandoned farms of the older States of the East and Southeast.

*Large Crops,  
Lower Prices,  
Probable*

Viewing the immediate situation, therefore, whether in the United States, Canada, South America, Asia, or Europe, it is plain that the year 1915 is to witness the most exceptional efforts to produce the largest supplies of breadstuffs, vegetables, and fruits,—as well as poultry, swine, and other kinds of food,—that the world has ever known. War conditions and industrial paralysis, on the other hand, will reduce purchasing power,—that is to say, will render the demand for food less effective in the commercial sense. Just how to reconcile these broad facts with the general prediction that very high prices are to be maintained has not yet been set forth.

*The Causes  
of Speculation*

The speculative and anxious character of the food market last month was simply due to fear as regards the possible closing of some of the larger avenues of commerce. England was obviously dependent upon keeping the seas open in order to obtain her future food supply; and preferred to pay high prices for grain now in sight in order to keep reserves on hand, rather than to let her stock run low with the idea of buying cheaply in the late summer and fall. As for Germany, while her need for food from the outside was less urgent, it was the dictate of common prudence to ship in as much wheat as possible, and to demand the right to obtain food at all times for her civilian population when brought in neutral ships. These conditions greatly stimulated export in January and February, and favored those speculative performances in the United States that kept the price of wheat abnormally high.

*Crowding  
Neutrals Off  
the Sea*

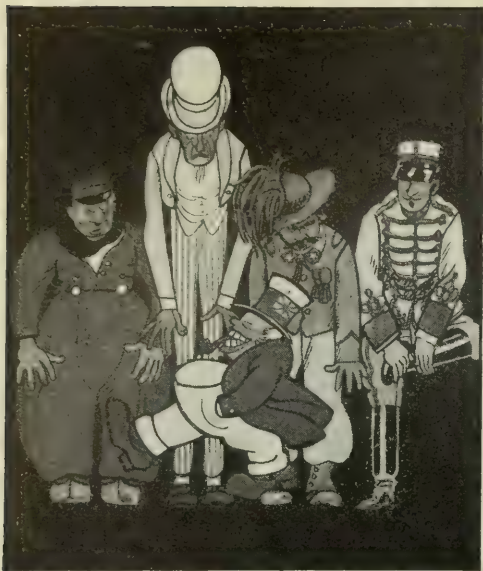
Ever since the outbreak of the war, the tendency on the part of the belligerents to trespass upon the rights of neutrals has been increasing. Beginning with Germany's outrageous violation of Belgium, there has been little regard for the principles of international law whether on land or on sea. The situation is in many respects similar to that which em-

broiled our Government with France and with England in the days of the Napoleonic struggles, and that led us into the second war with England when we had barely escaped a war with France. At the very beginning of the war our Government should have brought together the chief neutral powers having commerce or ships affected by the struggle, and a common course of action should have been agreed upon. It is true that case after case of arbitrary seizure was called to the attention of the British Government; but it was not until high-handed courses had become habitual that our Government sent its elaborate note on the subject of so-called "contraband." It is not necessary to find any fault with the belligerent governments. They are engaged in a stupendous struggle, and are not doing any intentional wrong to neutrals. It is the business of neutrals to keep away from the fringes of trouble, if they can, but to know their rights and to insist upon them with firmness, good temper, and the least possible indulgence in formal and argumentative "notes."

*We Have Small  
Concern in the  
North Sea*

Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden have vastly more commercial shipping at stake than belongs to us. The rights of neutral merchant ships in the North Sea may be of some theoretical concern to us, but of very little practical moment. Our trade with Europe is in no way dependent upon ships flying the American flag. When, therefore, the German Government warned neutral powers that there might be much danger after February 18 in the English Channel and the waters adjacent to the British Islands, we were very slightly affected in a practical way. Norway, Holland, Denmark, and Sweden were very much more directly concerned. The best possible advice to American ship-owners would have been, "Keep out of the danger zones till the situation clears up, and be thankful for your mercies!" For fifty years we have had no merchant shipping, to speak of, entering European waters; and we should be extraordinary fools to be forcing ourselves in at the one moment when sensible people would be glad to keep out. We had great and legitimate interests in Mexico, which we were instructed to abandon in order that our country might not be embroiled. We have no shipping interests in the North Sea or the waters around Great Britain that are of any relative importance; and we have no occasion to become embroiled either with Great Britain or with Germany.





THE PRIZE-TAKER [A GERMAN VIEW OF JOHN BULL]

"How long will the neutral nations allow this brutal fellow to tread upon their corns."  
From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

quently be shipped from those neutral countries into Germany. This was going very far.

Wheat  
Now Made  
Contraband

England's position on such points has been disputed and attacked by our Government, but without much avail. There are some things, however, that are never properly contraband,—most important among which are ordinary supplies of food intended for the civil population of a country. On February 2, England made the extraordinary announcement that she would not permit neutral ships to carry wheat to Germany. This upon its face was a most flagrant violation of the rights of neutrals and the established principles of international law. England's excuse was that there were reports of the assumption of governmental control over food supplies in Germany, and that this might fairly be regarded as giving the character of contraband to all food imports. Such an inference was both far-fetched and hasty. We have already explained, in previous paragraphs, the nature of the German Government's oversight of food supplies.

A Word  
About  
"Contraband"

Since the ordinary reader cannot possibly keep track of the diplomatic correspondence, with the warnings, threats, and counter-threats of the belligerents, a few simple words may help to make more clear the nature of the controversy. It all comes from strained and improper definitions of contraband. Munitions of war and articles intended for the direct maintenance and supply of armies and navies are called "contraband," and are subject to seizure at sea when destined to a belligerent port. Private citizens in neutral countries have a right to sell and ship contraband supplies to any purchaser, on the chance of their arrival. England buys huge quantities of contraband in the United States, because the German navy is bottled up and England can get the stuff into her own ports. Germany buys no contraband from us, because the English navy vigilantly overhauls all merchant ships that are supposed to be carrying such wares. There are other articles known as "conditional contraband." For a time England held up cargoes of cotton intended for Germany. This was an abuse of the doctrine of contraband, and England finally yielded to our protests. Gasoline and copper are other articles which England treats as contraband if destined for Germany. Cargoes of such wares were regularly held up, even though destined for neutral countries like Italy, on the ground that they might subse-

A Mistaken  
Policy

Even our own Government seemed to overlook the essential point by failing to understand the internal situation in Germany. It is plain on a moment's thought that the German Government could not have had the slightest object in announcing a food monopoly, if such action would have justified England in treating wheat destined for Hamburg or Bremen as contraband. As a matter of fact, there was no more right or justice in England's stigmatizing as contraband the wheat destined for Germany, than in Germany's so stigmatizing the wheat that is constantly entering the port of Liverpool. The German reply took the form of an announcement that if England would not allow the German people to import food in neutral ships, it would become the policy of Germany, after February 18, to try to prevent the importing of food into England. In theory and principle the propositions were not unlike. The actual difference lay in the fact that England's navy could easily overhaul all ships making for German ports, while Germany could only retaliate by threatening to strike at merchant ships with torpedoes from submarines, or to render British waters dangerous by scattering mines. We have been accused, from month to month, by our German-sympathizing readers with being pro-British. We pay no attention to such charges,

because our readers well know that we have endeavored to present the truth. Perhaps some of our English-sympathizing friends will now charge us with being pro-German when we express the view that the English Government was hasty and erroneous in its mandate against the carrying of wheat in neutral ships to German ports for use of the civilian population. Such wheat could not be contraband unless it were shown plainly that it was intended for the use of the army. The British position was technical and arbitrary.

*Our Flag  
as a  
"Ruse"*

Although the German declaration stated that the submarine campaign against merchant ships would not begin until February 18, there was much excitement; and on February 6 the *Lusitania* (the great Cunard passenger liner, outbound from New York) crossed the Irish Sea and entered Liverpool harbor flying the American flag as a ruse. Our State Department prepared two notes, which it sent at the same time in order to seem to keep its neutral balance. One was sent to England, protesting against the use of the American flag on English merchant ships in their endeavor to escape destruction from torpedoes, even though they might be carrying American passengers and goods. It does not seem



SAFETY FIRST  
From the *World* (New York)

to us that our Government's position was particularly sound, or that there was any occasion for protest. Any unarmed merchant ship engaged in its usual and proper business would fall short of its duty to save life and property if it neglected any method whatsoever by which it might escape destruction. The use of a neutral flag under such circumstances violates no rule of international law, harms nobody, and reflects no dishonor upon the borrowed flag, but rather the contrary. Such practises have been recognized as wholly proper from time immemorial.

*Our Note  
to  
Germany*

Our second note was to Germany, and, while in the form of words it was courteous, it came little short of being an ultimatum in its purport. It warned Germany that no mistakes must be made, and that American ships were not to be sunk in the open seas merely because Germany had chosen to designate certain great expanses of the ocean as a war zone. Germany had not, of course, claimed any right to exclude neutral ships, but had given warning that mines and torpedoes would create fresh hazards, and that the route around the north of Scotland would be safer and better. Germany's position was plainly wrong, and her statement of it was offensive. The United States was justified in giving counterwarning, though the simpler communications of the European neu-



IF

"If you can keep your head while all about you are losing theirs—"

From the *Sun* (New York)

—Kipling



trials constitute better diplomacy than our proneness to the writing of lawyers' briefs and arguments.

*The Really  
Important  
Incident*

Our chief diplomatic mistake lay in calling England's attention to the wrong thing. The *Lusitania's* use of the American flag was not entitled to a moment's passing notice by the State Department. But the actual seizure of the American ship *Wilhelmina*, together with her cargo of wheat destined for Germany, called for the clearest kind of statement upon a wrongful interference with our commerce. The seizing of a non-contraband cargo in a ship whose neutral registry is of unquestioned validity is a much more serious incident than all of the cotton, copper, and other contraband incidents put together that formed the basis of our elaborate and ill-received note to the British Government of December 28. Yet, even in all this, German diplomacy was to some extent at fault, because for several days it did not explain the civilian nature of the German food monopoly, and did not make it clear even to neutral America that food importations would be used strictly for civilian needs.

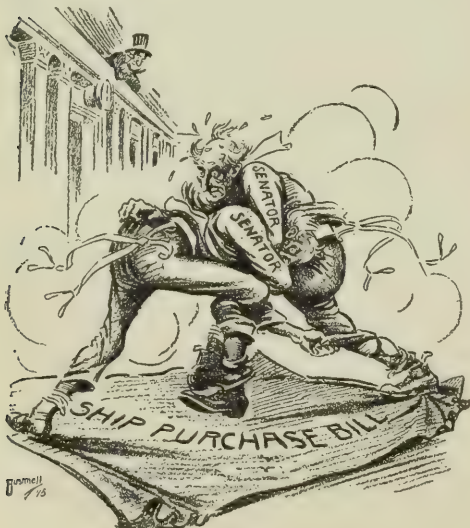
*A Blockade  
the Proper  
Device*

There was, indeed, one way by which England could lawfully keep neutral ships from entering German ports for any purpose whatsoever; and that was by declaring a blockade of the German coast and proceeding to make such blockade reasonably effective. It is hard to

understand why such a blockade had not been declared, as respects at least a portion of the coast, several months ago. England's sea power is so great that her declared blockade would not be regarded by any neutral country as a merely "paper" affair; and blockade-runners would take their own risks and have no claim upon protection of any government. The German submarine threats did not amount to a blockade in the international-law sense, because Germany's submarine fleet is not large enough to form a patrol of the hundreds of miles of British seacoast; so that no neutral government could be asked to respect such a declaration. Finally, these situations are all very distressing and lamentable. But our own Government and people have no real occasion to be mixed up in the turmoil along the British and German coasts. "Watchful waiting" is a phrase that might well be applied to all these maritime problems. The war is a life-and-death matter for the great powers that are engaged in it. For us, as regards these topics of diplomatic discussion, the war at worst is a mere inconvenience. Neither duty nor advantage calls us abroad.

*Party Strife  
at  
Washington*

Nothing since the outbreak of the European war has been fraught with so much danger to the welfare of the United States as the almost insane spirit of controversy that took possession of those in authority at Washington last month. "Filibusters," "dead-locks," all-night sessions, turned the Senate into a bear garden. In times of great emergency, it is not usual for governments to flaunt partisanship. On the outbreak of war, cabinets were quite generally reorganized in Europe, in order to make them national rather than partisan. This was done not merely by the countries engaged in war, but also by a number of the neutral powers. Besides the rearrangement of cabinets, the plan was formed of calling into council, in all matters of importance, the leaders of opposition elements in the legislative bodies. Thus in England, Lord Kitchener was called into the cabinet with full authority over the military situation; and all measures have been taken with the unanimous support of all parties in the House of Commons. This was illustrated in the granting of unlimited credits to the government by Parliament last month, for the further costs of the army and navy, or whatever relates to the war. In France there has been such harmony as the country had never known before, and it may fairly be said that no Frenchman,—whether



"CATCH AS CATCH CAN"

From the Tribune (South Bend)

in the cabinet, the legislative chambers, or the army,—has seemed to be seeking his own glory or aspiring to anything except the service of France.

*Harmony  
Needed*

In the neutral countries of Europe there has been the utmost effort to make government action responsive to the general sentiment as expressed through the public leaders of all parties. In the opening weeks of the war there seemed to be a reasonable prospect that partisanship would be restrained, even if not obliterated, at Washington. A number of measures were entered upon in a patriotic spirit, without much controversy. As the war has progressed, the reasons for solid and united support of American policies have not grown less. The difficulties of our maritime position as the foremost neutral country have increased in consequence of the fact that the war has proved less swift and decisive than was generally expected, so that questions of trade and commerce have become more vitally involved than could well have been foreseen. These are questions which, in their very nature, demand treatment on their merits, with the largest possible concurrence of judgment and support, and with no showing of party lines or political maneuvering.

*Reasons  
for a  
United Front*

And this is for two reasons that are general, and one that is special. The general reasons are (1) that delicate foreign policies are involved, and no country should present party divisions to the outside world; while (2) purely business interests are at stake, and these cannot by any chance be either Republican or Democratic in their complexion. These two reasons would apply at any time. Even if the world were at peace, we ought not to make party quarrels out of questions having to do with the movement of our commerce with foreign countries, or its treatment by foreign governments. But there remains the simple fact that the leading commercial nations are engaged in the most

colossal and deadly war of all history. This constitutes the special reason why the decisions and policies of our government at Washington ought to be wholly free from party motive or spirit. They ought to be entered upon only after the utmost striving to find grounds of agreement, even to the point of complete unanimity. In the face of a world crisis so profound and serious, the situation at Washington last month was nothing less than appalling in its show of recklessness.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing

SENATOR FLETCHER OF  
FLORIDA

(Who led the supporters of the Administration's Ship Purchase measures, in committee and on the floor of the Senate throughout the deadlocked sessions)

*The Real Work  
of  
Congress*

The regular business of the session of Congress was the thorough consideration of a series of great bills, providing for the expenditure of about one thousand million dollars, while also dealing with the probable shortage of revenue. Congress in the last session had promptly acquiesced in the proposal to levy extensive war taxes; but in spite of these new sources there promises to be a shortage, due principally to the falling off in the tariff duties on imported goods. The passing of the appropriation bills always involves much more than the mere granting of money, because there must needs be debate upon the domestic policies involved in the expenditures. For example, the country has regarded it as a matter of prime importance, in connection with the army expenditures, that the authorities at Washington should work out, in a spirit of agreement, an improved system of national defense. It is never possible to pass the navy supply bill without a reopening of the question how many, and what kind of, ships ought to be built from year to year. There was particular reason just now for bringing together the best judgment and experience of all wise leaders in an endeavor to lift the naval policy above partisanship and adapt it in every way to the situation that faces the country. There were many other problems associated with the supply bills that were more than sufficient to occupy the entire time and attention of Congress. The present session must expire on March 4 because on that



date are ended the terms for which all members of the House, and one-third of the members of the Senate, have been elected.

*No Time for  
Contested  
Measures*

It was not, therefore, desirable that Congress should occupy itself at great length with any other measures, although there were various bills of importance that had been previously considered and might fairly have been brought to a vote, in one house or in both, as a matter of common consent. It was manifestly not a time in which a bitterly controversial measure that involved new and untried ideas could be properly held to have an importance superseding everything else, —unless the project commanded the support of a large and clear majority, so that it could truthfully be said that its prompt passage was prevented only by the filibustering of a small minority that was taking undue advantage of parliamentary privileges to obstruct the course of legislation. It cannot be said, however, that the Ship Purchase bill was of this character. We are not at this moment speaking of its possible merits. It is of the proceedings in the United States Senate with relation to this bill that we are occupied here. A measure that had no party character in its very nature, was made the occasion of the most intense and bitter party fight of forty years.

*The Ship  
Purchase  
Bill*

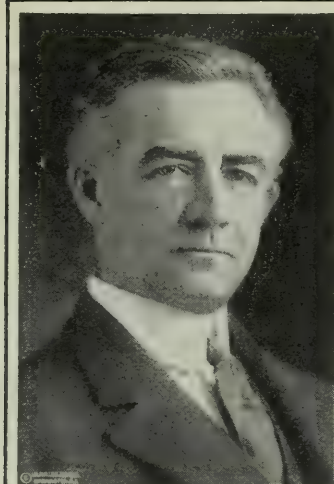
In the previous session there had been introduced in both Houses bills authorizing the Government to form a company for the purchase and operation of mercantile ships. It was quite generally understood that the Administration had formed a tentative plan for buying some of the numerous fine German passenger and freight ships that were lying idle in our harbors by reason of the menace of the British navy. It was thought that if our Government itself bought these ships no one could make the accusation that the transfer was evasive or in bad faith, and that we could push them into our trade,—with South America, if not with Europe,—so that with the opening of the Panama Canal we should have made a large beginning towards a new American merchant marine. The idea was a brilliant one if workable. Its motives were unquestionably patriotic. But so novel a measure, and one so profoundly important in its bearings, could not safely be enacted into law unless thoroughly considered in all its aspects and strongly supported by statesmen as well as by public opinion.

*"Filibuster  
and  
Deadlock*

If the entire body of Democrats in the Senate had been willing to obey the caucus decision, stand together, and follow the lead of the President as "captain of the team," the Republican filibuster would have been somehow overcome, and the bill would have been passed in some shape. But to the great dismay and surprise of Senator Fletcher of Florida who was managing the bill, seven Democrats broke away at the critical moment and this resulted in a virtual tie of the Senate. For the first time in almost twenty years every Senator was in his seat and on duty. Up to a certain point, Senator LaFollette of Wisconsin, Senator Kenyon of Iowa, and Senator Norris of Nebraska, acted with the Democrats in favor of the Ship Purchase bill. The leaders had consented to some modifications of the measure, in order to obtain the support of Messrs. Norris and Kenyon. With seven Democrats opposed to the bill, and these three Republicans favoring it, the division was 48 to 48. By every known trick in the parliamentary game, and by sheer physical endurance tests, with all-night sessions, and individual speeches running continuously in some cases for from ten to fourteen hours, it was sought for a number of days to break the deadlock. Meanwhile, a puzzled public asked what it was all about.

*The  
Country's  
Loss*

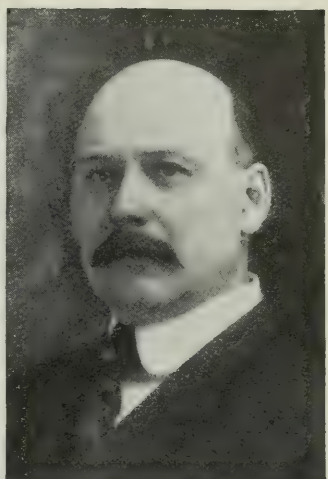
It is needless here to recount the details. The thing to note is that the country needs the collective wisdom of the Senate in a period like the present, and that it gets nobody's wisdom when the Senators are engaged in a desperate, deadlocked fight. Contrary to the opinion of some people, the Senate is an exceedingly able body. Its membership to-day averages better in legal knowledge and statesmanlike qualities than at almost any previous moment in our history. There are excellent men on both sides of the chamber. The cabinet is also made up of patriotic and able men, several of whom are of marked sagacity and business knowledge. The President's patriotism and high attributes of intelligence and leadership are universally conceded. The country has been entitled to expect that at this time, of all times in our history, such men would lay aside political wrangling, in the face of a troubled and desperate world. There is nothing whatever in this Ship Purchase bill that could not be much better dealt with by the plan of non-contentious, careful study with a view to agreement. Controversial methods of dealing with it have only



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GILBERT M. HITCHCOCK  
(Democrat, Nebraska)

Photograph by Bain

WESLEY L. JONES  
(Republican, Washington)

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JOHN W. WEEKS  
(Republican, Massachusetts)

## THREE SENATORS PROMINENT IN THE OPPOSITION TO THE ADMINISTRATION'S SHIP PURCHASE LEGISLATION

(Senator Hitchcock was one of the seven Democrats who refused to support the Administration. Senator Jones earned the distinction of making the longest speech, talking nearly fourteen hours. Senator Weeks was the author of a bill which the Administration leaders amended so radically in the House as to make it serve their purposes as a compromise)

confused the public, so that neither its faults nor its merits have been rightly understood.

*Points  
of the  
Bill*

The measure as thus passed provides for a government shipping board, to buy and operate merchant ships until two years after the end of the European war. The maximum investment is expected to be about \$50,000,000.

*Carried  
in the  
House*

The hard fight had been made first in the Senate, because it was known that Democratic leadership could pass any bill through the House that had been determined upon in the other chamber. But when the deadlock in the Senate could not be broken, the plan of campaign was changed and a bill was hastily put through the other house, although without much enthusiasm. Senator Weeks of Massachusetts, one of the foremost opponents of the Democratic bill, had previously been able to pass through the Senate a bill of a much more moderate character, authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to use such vessels as might be available for carrying mails, passengers, and freight upon routes to South America or to Europe as should prove necessary. This bill remained on the calendar of the other house. The Democrats decided to use the Weeks bill as a basis, and to amend it in such a way as to embody the main points of the Government's program. This was actually done, and the bill was forced through the House under a rule providing for six hours debate. The vote came early on the morning of February 17, 215 members favoring and 122 opposing. All of the Republicans present voted against the bill, as did nineteen Democrats.

The ships are to be transferred to the Navy when the board goes out of business, and the Secretary of the Navy may lease to private shippers such vessels as are not needed for transport or other naval purposes. It was hoped by the Democrats that this measure, coming back to the Senate from the House, might have a favorable parliamentary position and be forced to a vote, with Vice-President Marshall breaking the deadlock if his vote were needed. Meanwhile, there had been charges that Government officials had been unduly interested in the purchase of the interned German ships, while on the other hand there were counter-charges to the effect that a lobby representing existing steamship lines had been working at Washington against the Administration's bill. A committee of Senators was appointed to investigate these scandalous rumors. It is permissible to say that there had not seemed to be any ground for the accusations on either side. The Administration had been favoring the bill for public reasons, as Secretaries Redfield and McAdoo were, of course, readily able to show. On the other hand, Senators were not opposing the bill through





Photograph by American Press Association, New York

SENATOR NORRIS, OF NEBRASKA

(Senators Norris, Kenyon, and La Follette refused on February 17 to accept the Ship Purchase bill as amended and passed in the other house, because they favored a permanent Government merchant marine. Their abandonment of the Democrats changed the majority and prevented the bill from going to conference committee.)

any inducements offered by shipping interests. As for the purchase of interned ships, it had come to be quite unlikely that a Government shipping board would buy vessels owned in any of the belligerent countries, unless it had been learned through diplomatic channels that no objections would be raised.

*Again  
the Senate  
Rules!* The struggle in the Senate called attention once more to the need of rules for the regulation of debate. Some plan ought to be devised to obviate on the one hand peremptory action under caucus rule by a bare majority, and on the other hand the practise of filibustering on the part of a minority through the abuse of the privilege of unlimited debate. It is fair to say that a number of the speeches in the Senate were of remarkable ability and value; but no one pretends that the extremely

long speeches were for any other purpose than to prevent a vote. Senator Norris of Nebraska has taken the lead in an endeavor to provide a way for finding a reasonable limit, and ending such situations as were created last month when the Senators camped out upon cots in cloak rooms and committee rooms, ready to rush into the chamber if a roll call was ordered, while Senator Jones of Washington or some other long-distance orator, talked all night without a human being listening and with only two or three Senators, acting as pickets, lounging in the Senate chamber. Nothing of this kind is possible in any other great parliamentary body in the entire world. The House of Representatives now does business, as a rule, without real debate. The Senate must continue to deliberate, but it ought not to filibuster. A reasonable plan for protecting the Senate against its own excesses can certainly be worked out and adopted.

*Affairs in  
Our Hemi-  
sphere*

Their hopes of passing the Ship Purchase bill having been frustrated on the 17th by the refusal of the three progressive Republicans to support them, the Democratic leaders consented to take up the appropriation bills that had come to the Senate from the other house. The Naval bill, for instance, had been sent over with a total appropriation of nearly \$147,000,000. It called for two new battle-ships of the first class, eleven submarines, and half a million dollars for naval aircraft. The Senate will change it in various particulars. It is to be noted that late in January the plan of passing the Immigration bill over President Wilson's veto narrowly failed to obtain the necessary two-thirds vote in the House, the test showing 261 for and 136 against overriding the veto. The policy of "watchful waiting" at Washington, as respects Mexico, had continued without change, Mr. Duval West, of San Antonio, having been sent by the President to represent him and report upon the views of the leaders. The struggle between the followers of Carranza and Villa was going on last month without indication of conclusive results. The South American countries were gaining in prosperity and strongly urging a united policy of protection for Western Hemisphere commerce against belligerent aggressions. The opening of the great fair at San Francisco was attracting attention to an enterprise that had not been delayed or modified by reason of the war. Canadian energy continues to expend itself without stint in war effort.



DR. ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL, WITH GUESTS, ON OCCASION OF THE FIRST TRANS-CONTINENTAL TELEPHONE CONVERSATION, IN THE OFFICES OF THE AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH CO., NEW YORK

(From left to right: Chief Engineer John J. Carty, of the Telephone Company; Hon. George McAneny, President of the New York Board of Aldermen; Vice-President U. N. Bethell, of the Telephone Company; Dr. Bell (under the portrait of President Theodore N. Vail, of the Telephone Company); Mayor Mitchel, of New York; President C. E. Yost, of the Nebraska Telephone Company, and Controller W. A. Prendergast, of New York)

*Telephoning  
Across the  
Continent*

"Mr. Watson, are you there?" said Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, in New York, on January 25 last. "Indeed I am," came the clear reply from Mr. Thomas W. Watson in San Francisco; and with these two simple sentences was opened the first transcontinental conversation over the telephone. The total distance was thirty-six hundred miles. And then connection was successfully made between President Vail, of the telephone company, at Jekyl Island, off the coast of Georgia, to San Francisco, by way of New York,—a distance of 4300 miles,—and then by way of Boston, a distance of 4750 miles. It was these same two men,—Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas W. Watson,—who first used the telephone in their rooms in a boarding house in Boston thirty-nine years ago. Since then the system of wire communication has steadily advanced. Beginning in 1876 with the first line, two miles long, between Boston and Cambridge, New York was linked to Boston in 1884, and then other cities Westward, until now the Metropolis is on speaking terms with the Golden Gate. Various elements contributed importantly

to the success of this historic event. The invention, some years ago, by Professor Michael I. Pupin of a "loading coil," doing away with the distortion of current waves as well as the "relaying" device for amplifying or revivifying the current at various points invented by Mr. Peter Cooper Hewitt, both had a vital bearing on the development of long distance telephony. Not a little credit is also due to the work of Mr. John J. Carty and Mr. Bancroft Gherardi, engineers of the Telephone Company, for the necessary perfection of the physical plant.

*Cross-Ocean  
Wireless Speech  
Coming!*

But even greater achievements are promised. The human voice is already being transmitted over considerable distances without the use of wires. Last month this feat was performed from a moving train on the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad over a space of twenty-six miles; while in a test made on the Pacific Coast, wireless conversation was said to have been successfully carried on over a distance of 721 miles. Both Professor Pupin and Mr. Hewitt have predicted that we shall soon be able to talk across the ocean.



*The  
Active  
Airmen*

Forty aeroplanes, British and French, engaged in a simultaneous raid of destruction against the German bases in Belgium on February 16. And a few days before, thirty-four machines had flown on a similar expedition. The bomb-dropping air raids indulged in by both the Germans and the Allies between points in Belgium and Dunkirk and Calais in the north of France have been very frequent. These operations bring strikingly to public attention the activities of the airmen in the war. And exceedingly active they have been ever since hostilities began. Five thousand aeroplanes, more or less, and over a hundred dirigible balloons have been traversing the air lanes over every part of the entire War Zone—in Belgium, France, Germany, Austria, Russia, and the Balkans; even in Africa, and in China, over Tsing-Tau, before that place surrendered. In all climates and in all kinds of weather, day and night, the scouts of the air have been busy. The value of aerial reconnoissance has proved incalculable, eliminating the element of surprise from military operations. Only last month, when von Hindenberg, in East Prussia, had all but surrounded a Russian army, the alert eyes of the Russian airmen discovered the enveloping movement in time to prevent complete annihilation. The discovery of the enemy's batteries and the directing of artillery fire in these days of long-range guns and clever methods of concealment have made the aviator the eye of the "man behind the gun." Each time he prevents the waste of a single shot from a big gun he saves the cost of his aeroplane. And the usefulness of the aircraft is being gradually extended. For instance, at Craonne, last month, aviators prepared the way for a French charge by dropping bombs on the Germans and completely demoralizing them.

*Japan  
and  
China*

It was reported from Peking late in January that as a sequel of the taking of Kiao-chau and the expulsion of Germany from Chinese territory, Japan had presented certain demands to the government of China. It was understood that Japan asked China for the transfer of concessions formerly held by Germany and Austria, the opening of various rivers to foreign navigation, and also certain railway and mining concessions. The government at Tokio announced, however, that the proposals made to China "contained nothing of a nature to disturb the territorial integrity of China or anything conflicting with the spheres of

influence now enjoyed by other powers in China." Negotiations between the two governments continued at Peking until the middle of February, when it was reported that all of the Japanese demands, twenty-one in number, had been rejected by China. Japan's attitude is approved in England and looked upon as merely an attempt to obtain a definite settlement of outstanding claims. Meanwhile, the cordiality of the relations between the United States and Japan has been emphasized by meetings held in Japan, which were addressed by Professor Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago, and Professor Sidney L. Gulick, of New York, who represent the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. Governor Johnson, of California, has announced his opposition to any effort to reopen the question of the alien land law in the California legislature.

*Chicago to  
Elect a  
Mayor*

Not content with overtopping by two years his father's record of ten years as Mayor of Chicago, Carter H. Harrison II sought the Democratic nomination again last month in the primaries. Mr. Harrison was first elected in 1897, serving four two-year terms and voluntarily retiring in 1905. In 1911 he became a candidate again, and was elected for a four-year term which is just now drawing to a close. His principal opponent in the Democratic primary last month was Robert M. Sweitzer, whose strength consisted of an excellent record as County Clerk and the active support of Roger Sullivan. The Republican nomination was solicited by William H. Thompson, a wealthy sportsman affiliated with the Lorimer faction, and by Harry Olson, who has been Chief Justice of the great Municipal Court since it was established in 1906. These pages were closed for the press too soon to give the results of the primaries of February 23. The first trial of Chicago's primary law (four years ago) was pronounced a success by political reformers, for it resulted in the defeat of the "regular" candidates of both parties. The present campaign has been replete with acrimonious discussion, on the platform and in the press, indulged in by practically all the candidates. The women of the city are for the first time participating in a mayoralty election. Some of them have sought to investigate social conditions; and their findings have naturally hurt only the incumbent, Mayor Harrison,—out of all proportion to his responsibility in the matters criticized.

Woman  
Suffrage  
East, South

The scene of woman-suffrage activity has suddenly shifted from the West to the East. In the four great commonwealths of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania the legislatures are submitting woman-suffrage amendments to the voters. It had been necessary in each case to have favorable action by two successive legislatures, and the measures were all on their second passage. When these notes were written, favorable and final action had been taken in New York, Massachusetts, and New Jersey; and in Pennsylvania the measure had been passed by one house and was being favorably considered in the other. In the legislatures of all these States there has of late been little if any opposition. It is not to be denied that the suffrage workers have won a great victory, after a long fight, in getting the measures out of the legislatures; but the cynically inclined see many evidences of the desire of the legislators to shift the burden to the voters. The suffragists,—with the possible exception of the most sanguine,—will themselves be surprised, next fall, if a majority of the male voters of even one of the great Eastern States favor the doubling of the electorate. Woman-suffrage has also made notable gains in the South within recent weeks. The legislatures of Arkansas, West Virginia, and Tennessee all have ratified, by fair majorities, resolutions for the submission of constitutional amendments. In Tennessee a second passage is required, but West Virginia will vote upon the proposition in 1916, and Arkansas probably in 1917.

Further  
Prohibition  
Gains

It has seemed feasible and appropriate for us, from time to time during recent months, to chronicle the advance of prohibition movements in various sections of the country. In the December issue, for instance, we noted the adoption of statewide prohibition by the voters of Washington, Oregon, Arizona, and Colorado,—the culmination of long and arduous campaigns in each State. Arkansas has now found it possible to enforce prohibition by a much quicker method,—simply through legislative enactment,—and has done it so quietly as to attract little attention without her own borders. The measure was passed by the House on February 1, by the Senate on the 5th, and on the following day it was signed by Governor Hays. It will go into effect on January 1, 1916, and Arkansas will become the fifteenth prohibition State. "Dry" amendments have also been adopted

by the upper houses of the legislatures of Iowa, Montana, and Utah, with excellent prospects for passage in the lower branches. Iowa will probably enforce prohibition by statute pending the required second passage through the legislature and the submission of a constitutional amendment to the voters, a procedure which takes several years.

Unemployment:  
A National  
Problem

The emergency of the past winter has found the country quite as unprepared to cope with the evil of unemployment as it would have been in the event of foreign war to defend itself against any first-class power. It is only within the past year or two that any great number of citizens outside the ranks of social workers has become seriously interested in the problem of finding work for the workless. It is not strange that there has been, thus far, a failure to agree upon any general remedial program. In some of the States marked progress has been made in organizing and improving public labor bureaus, State and municipal. At the same time there is a growing feeling in the country that the Federal Government itself must establish a national bureau that will, in some degree, control the entire situation. It will take time, however, to bring this to pass, and early in the winter it became clear that immediate relief in some form would be demanded in all of our great cities and in many of the smaller towns and villages throughout the country.

A Serious  
Situation

Inquiries made by the *Survey*, of New York, in seventeen of our largest cities showed that there had been in December an increase of applications to charitable societies ranging from 30 to 100 per cent. over the same period last year. With such conditions confronting them, city officials and charity workers could not wait to get together on any platform that involved the starting of new national machinery, but were compelled to adopt practical relief measures varying with the special needs of each locality. Besides, the problem as it presented itself was more than one of organization or machinery. For the man without work the employment bureau could be of no service unless there was a job that it could connect him with. At the beginning of the winter it seemed in many cities that the shortage of jobs was so serious as to amount to far more than a merely transitory condition. In many employments there simply was no work and no prospect of work for months to come.



*Public Works*

The old way of meeting a crisis of this kind was to provide relief funds in the form of cash, and to distribute these as judiciously as possible among the families made destitute by unemployment. This method has never had the approval of intelligent students of the problem, and in the recent emergency it was almost universally discarded. Only one large city, Philadelphia, voted public money to be used in this way, the emergency relief fund of \$50,000 being disbursed there by the Emergency Aid Committee, which was composed entirely of women. In other cities where appropriations have been made from the public funds attempts have been made to provide work to be paid for at a living wage. The city of Chicago, for example, kept all its Public Works employees at work much longer than in ordinary years, carried out extra park development work and extra street widening, and began the construction of school buildings that would ordinarily have been put over until spring. The Park Board of Minneapolis, for the sake of employing men whose families were in distress, started the clearing of a strip of lowland soon to be flooded by the building of a dam in the Mississippi. Cincinnati is putting hundreds of men to work on the new water-works loop and high-pressure fire service. The State of Massachusetts is undertaking the reclamation of wet lands, and has appropriated \$50,000 for immediate expenditure.

*Private Employers*

At the best, however, city and State governments can employ only a comparatively small number from the swollen ranks of the out-of-works. Private employers must take the chief part of the burden in times like this. Thus the Pennsylvania and allied railroad systems now building great terminals in Chicago are able, by advancing the beginning of the building operations, to give work to 12,000 men. There are not many instances like this, but throughout the country corporations and individuals, by undertaking work in the winter instead of waiting for spring, have been able to give employment in the aggregate to many thousands of workers who would otherwise have been without work throughout the winter. It is this fact that makes the outlook at the end of February for the country in general far more bright than it was at the end of December. To aid the emergency work in New York, Colonel Roosevelt generously gave \$10,000 from the Nobel Peace Prize money awarded him in 1906.

*New Leadership*

In any review of the winter's experience regarding unemployment three facts stand out: (1) the tendency everywhere to look upon the problem of unemployment as a big national question demanding the ablest statesmanship of our day; (2) the disposition to solve the special problem in each locality by the most direct and practical method, that is, by providing work instead of money; (3) the calling out in many communities of the best available talent for dealing with this problem, as instanced by Judge Elbert H. Gary's activities as chairman of the Mayor's Committee in New York and by the Chicago City Industrial Commission, headed by Professor Charles R. Henderson, and including representatives of the Harvester Works, the packing companies, the Western Electric, the Crane Company, the railroads, the building trades, and the Chicago Federation of Labor. The influence of these bodies has done much to induce employers to continue half-time labor where otherwise there would have been wholesale discharges.

*Industrial Relations Hearings*

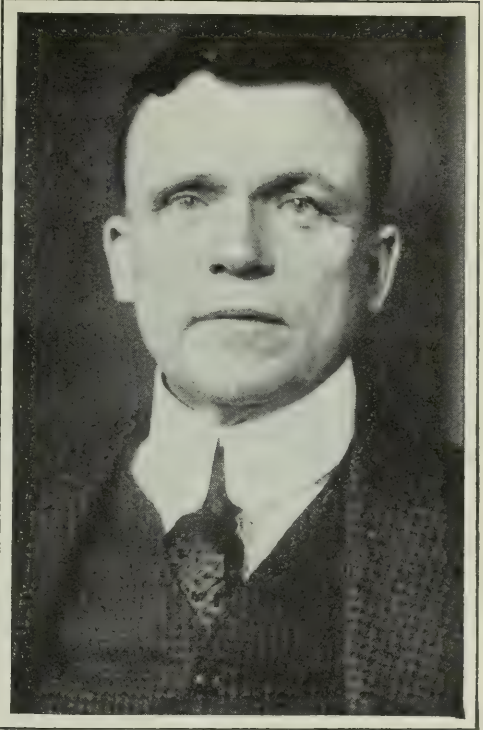
During the month of January and the first half of February the Industrial Relations Commission held a series of hearings in New York City which attracted the attention of the country to an unusual degree because of the prominence of several of the men who were subpoenaed by the commission to answer its questions. Two purposes seemed to be in view in the holding of these hearings,—first, obtaining the views of well-known capitalists and publicists on the relations of capital and labor; and, second, an inquiry into the aims and methods of several of the great foundations recently organized and endowed for educational and humanitarian objects. As regards the first of these purposes, the opinions of "captains of industry" and "money kings" are always of interest; and in eliciting these the commission was, in a measure, successful. As to the second purpose of the hearing very little was disclosed that had not already been well known to the general public beyond the fact that such institutions as the Rockefeller, Carnegie, and Sage foundations, the General Education Board, and other recently formed organizations of this type are officered and conducted, without exception, by the highest type of expert ability that can be commanded in this country, and that their possibilities for good to America and the world at large are practically limitless.

*The  
Commission's  
Job*

Now that the Industrial Relations Commission has assured itself of these facts, the country would like to see it turn to some of those specific fields of investigation that were in the minds of those who secured the passage of the law creating it during the Taft administration. In 1913, after President Wilson had appointed the members of the commission, an article contributed to this REVIEW suggested that the commission might find some of its most definite and broadest work in "overhauling our labor departments and correlating the work between States; in developing greater publicity as to sources of employment in terms of work; in standardizing public minimums as to safety, hours, wages, and other conditions; and in developing machinery for mediation and arbitration and in advancing the bargaining that goes on about those minimums." Several of the commissioners appointed by President Wilson are known to be peculiarly qualified by years of study and experience to pursue just these lines of inquiry. There is a feeling that if they should be permitted to do this, the public interest would be better served and the Government's money more wisely expended than by holding repeated series of hearings on subjects that relate only remotely to these specific problems. It was stated last month by Chairman Walsh that the commission would begin at Chicago an investigation of the relations of transportation companies to their employees and that later Pittsburgh would be visited. Perhaps more concrete and useful results may now be hoped for.

*Western  
Water  
Freight*

In connection with the development of Panama Canal traffic,—a topic discussed in this magazine by Miss Laut last month,—it is interesting to note that one of the gulf ports, Galveston, was last year second only to New York in export and import tonnage. That the Mississippi Valley is alive to Panama trade opportunities is shown by the interest taken in the building of standardized terminals for the handling of freight on the Missouri and Mississippi rivers. Minneapolis, New Orleans, and Kansas City have already constructed good terminals, while smaller towns, like Davenport and Quincy, are building shore works, and the city of St. Louis has comprehensive plans. As an effort toward the restoration of inland waterway transportation, a meeting for the purpose of organizing this terminal movement was held in St. Louis last month.



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CHAIRMAN FRANK P. WALSH OF THE INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION, WHICH HAS HELD HEARINGS IN NEW YORK AND CHICAGO

*A New "Long  
and Short-  
Haul" Decision*

On February 10, the Interstate Commerce Commission made a new decision in the so-called "Intermountain" rate question that appears to be very important, measured in policy. In direct financial results to the railroads the ruling is not of large consequence, affecting, as it does, only certain specified commodities. This intermountain rate question concerned the right of the transcontinental railroads to charge a decidedly higher freight rate from, for instance, New York to Reno, Nevada, than from New York to San Francisco. The rate practise had been to make the charge from New York to Reno greater than that for the longer haul from New York to San Francisco by the amount of the regular charge back from San Francisco to the interior point. The simple justification for this practise, at first glance, so anomalous, was that the transcontinental road had to meet the competition of water routes when shipments were made through to San Francisco, and rates were made to that point which would secure the traffic for the railroad.



*History of the  
Intermountain  
Case*

In 1911 the Interstate Commerce Commission, having in the previous year been empowered by Congress to fix railroad rates, issued a ruling changing the practise described above. Theoretically it seemed, indeed, unjust that these intermountain points should be charged rates decidedly higher than those for the much longer haul to the Pacific Coast. The Commission set to work to make a very elaborate arrangement of rates based on considerations of theoretical justice rather than of business expediency. Its ruling of 1911 divided the country into five longitudinal zones, the rate in each being based on a percentage of the rates in the other zones. The net effect of this new plan would have been to force the roads, when they met water competition to Pacific Coast points, to reduce concordantly the rates to intermountain points to figures which they considered unprofitable. The roads appealed to the Commerce Court, which gave a decision in their favor; but the Supreme Court, in June, 1914, affirmed that the Commerce Commission was, under the 1910 amendment to the Interstate Commerce Act, within its rights.

*Water Competition  
Via  
Panama*

In the present ruling,—which, technicalities aside, allows the railroads to reduce their rates to Pacific Coast points without at the same time making ruinous reductions to interior points,—the Commerce Commission recognizes the new conditions imposed by competition with the Panama route, as well as the alarming general decrease in railroad revenues and the impairment of railroad credit. Although the net addition to the revenues of the roads will not be great, the decision has extreme importance in the recognition by the Commission of the necessity the railroads are under to make their rates under some flexible system which will meet the business conditions confronting them. Earlier the Commission had apparently had in mind an attempt to make over the vast and intricate structure of tariff schedules on some theoretical principle of evening up opportunities for every town in the country. The movement is, indeed, some step in the direction of the much-maligned principle of charging what the traffic will bear. Many business men, and thoughtful observers generally, have been tending toward the belief that, after all, this principle is the only practicable basic guide to rate making. It is recognized and used even by the government-owned railroads of Germany and other European countries, where scientific theory and systematic harmony might

well have been expected to produce a better principle if such there is.

*The State of  
Business*

The passing of the dividend on the common stock of the United States Steel Corporation came as a surprise to the financial community and caused some setback in the advance of security prices on the American exchanges. This, the greatest industrial corporation in the world, had in the last three months of 1914 the worst financial quarter in its existence. In the quarter just passed it was true, indeed, that a considerable deficit for the period was shown after paying dividends even on the preferred shares. Many other evidences appear of a real depression in trade,—(1) record failures in business; (2) great numbers of people out of employment; (3) a sharp decline in bank clearings in spite of high commodity prices; (4) the heavy decline in railroad earnings, and (5) very low building records.

*Signs of Better  
Things*

While conservative observers scarcely hope for any boom in trade amid the present unprecedented world conditions, there are some evidences of recovery from the worst of the depression. The United States is piling up a favorable balance of trade at a rate of something like \$150,000,000 a month. This results from record exportations of wheat and cotton, with the wheat going at the highest prices in history; from sales of other food supplies and of clothing material to Europe in great quantities at high prices, and from exportations of ammunition, ordinance, and other war materials and supplies, such as horses, automobiles, motor trucks, aeroplanes, and barb wire. In a period of reduced imports, this phenomenal movement could not but give a huge balance of trade in our favor. By the middle of February, some cheering news had come from the steel mills, the great plant at Gary going into operation after many months of idleness. The large issue of bonds by the Pennsylvania Railroad was immediately and heavily over-subscribed, and the still larger issue of debentures by the New York Central was placed satisfactorily. The banks of the country have come into an exceptionally secure position, the Federal Reserve law is working so well that no more banking panics such as we had in 1893 and 1907 may be expected, and the psychological factor in business has obviously changed for the better, so that merchants and manufacturers are now looking confidently for better things.



A FRENCH CARD GAME INTERRUPTED BY A GERMAN AVIATOR: IN THE TRENCHES NEAR RHEIMS

## RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From January 21 to February 17, 1915)

### *The Last Ten Days of January*

January 21.—The United States replies to Germany's note regarding the status of United States consuls in Belgian territory occupied and controlled by Germans; the non-political status of consuls is recognized, and the United States does not question the right of Germany to suspend their exequators.

General von Falkenhayn, Chief of the German General Staff, relinquishes the office of Minister of War, and is succeeded by Gen. Wild von Henborn.

January 24.—A naval engagement is fought in the North Sea between powerful fleets of British and German vessels of the battle cruiser type supported by light cruisers and destroyers; the German armored cruiser *Bluecher* is sunk; the German fleet, outnumbered 5 to 4, retires and the British abandon the pursuit near German waters.

The United States Government (in an exhaustive letter from Secretary of State Bryan to Chairman Stone of the Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate) categorically denies twenty specific charges, made by German sympathizers, of discrimination against Germany and Austria in international situations arising out of the war.

Boer rebels under Maritz, numbering 1200, are repulsed after an attack on Upington, in Bechuanaland.

January 25.—A German dirigible balloon, of the Zeppelin or Parseval type, is destroyed by Russian gunfire during a bomb-dropping flight over Libau, the Russian port on the Baltic Sea.

La Basse, southwest of Lille, in France, is the scene of German assaults in force upon the British line.

A new Russian offensive movement in East Prussia is begun, north of the scene of the re-

verses of August but with Koenigsberg again as the objective.

January 26.—The German Government orders the seizure, on February 1, of all stocks of corn, wheat, and flour, and forbids business transactions in these commodities; a Government distributing office will be established.

Premier Van der Linden informs the lower house of the Dutch parliament that Holland must maintain its entire army, as at any moment incidents are possible which may render necessary an appeal to arms.

An imperial decree (it is reported) is issued in Austria-Hungary, calling out the entire landsturm, or last-line troops.

January 27.—British forces guarding the Suez Canal come in contact with the advance portion of a Turkish army invading Egypt from the east.

January 28.—Russia reports that the Turkish armies in the Caucasus have resumed their offensive.

January 29.—A German attack, with heavy reinforcements, results in a considerable advance in the Argonne Forest, northwest of Verdun, in France.

January 30.—The torpedoing of three British merchant steamships in the Irish Sea, by a German submarine, indicates an attempt to follow the suggestion of Admiral von Tirpitz and cut off England's food supply.

Russian forces occupy Tabriz, Persia, after defeating Turkish troops in the vicinity.

January 31.—Two British steamers are torpedoed in a second raid by German submarines, in the English Channel.

German forces directed at Warsaw make decided gains at Borjimore, after attacks on the Russian line lasting five weeks.



### *The First Week of February*

February 2.—A German-American named Werner Van Horn makes an unsuccessful attempt to blow up with dynamite the bridge across the St. Croix River, connecting the Canadian Pacific and Maine Central Railroads.

Great Britain decides to seize grain and flour shipments to Germany, even if intended for non-combatants, because of the German Government's announced intention to confiscate and regulate the distribution of those commodities.

February 3.—The British Ambassador at Washington formally requests the extradition of Van Horn, who attempted to destroy the international railroad bridge at Vanceboro, Me.; Van Horn appeals to the German Ambassador, claiming immunity as a German officer who has committed merely an act of war and escaped from the enemy.

A Turkish force attempts to cross the Suez Canal, north of Suez, but is repulsed by defense on land and from warships.

February 4.—Germany declares the waters around Great Britain and Ireland to be a war zone, after February 18, and announces that it will destroy every enemy merchant ship found; neutral ships are also warned of hazards and danger.

February 5.—Russian reports declare that fighting at Borjimow, west of Warsaw, is the hardest and bloodiest of the war.

February 6.—The transatlantic liner *Lusitania* (British-owned) passes through the war zone and enters Liverpool harbor flying the American flag as a protection against German submarine attack.

Turkey complies with the Italian demands relating to the Hodeida incident, surrendering the British consul who had been arrested, and saluting the Italian flag.

### *The Second Week of February*

February 8.—Premier Asquith informs the House of Commons that the British casualties in the western war zone, up to February 4, were 104,000 killed, wounded, and missing.

The Austro-Hungarian forces in Bukowina, supplemented by more than 100,000 Germans, compel the Russians to draw their lines closer and evacuate a large portion of the province.

An official Austrian report declares that the Russians have been defeated in a battle for the possession of Dukla Pass, in the Carpathians.

The Turkish cruiser *Midirli* (formerly the German cruiser *Breslau*) fires upon the Russian port of Yalta, on the Black Sea; Russian warships retaliate by bombarding Trebizond, a Turkish port.

February 9.—The Russian Duma holds its first session since August 9.

February 10.—The United States Government sends notes to Germany and Great Britain relative to American shipping in the war zone; Germany is advised that it would be a serious and unprecedented breach in the rules of naval warfare if a merchant vessel should be destroyed without first certainly determining its belligerent nationality or the contraband character of its cargo; Great Britain is warned of the serious consequences that may result to American vessels and citizens if the practise of using the American flag on British vessels is continued generally.

The British House of Commons unanimously adopts the army estimates for 3,000,000 men, voting unlimited funds to the Government.

February 11.—The Russian Duma is informed that the war cost Russia, for the five months from August to the end of the year, \$1,555,300,000, or \$7,210,000 a day.

February 12.—Russia announces the retirement, in the face of heavy German reinforcements, of the Russian army invading East Prussia; Germany declares that 26,000 Russians were taken prisoners.

Thirty-four British aeroplanes participate in a bomb-dropping raid upon Belgian coast towns used as strategical centers by the Germans.

The French Chamber of Deputies adopts and sends to the Senate a measure prohibiting the sale of absinthe.

February 13.—President Poincaré signs a measure authorizing an issue of \$200,000,000 national defense bonds.

Large numbers of Albanians cross the border into southern Serbia, occupying several towns and forcing Servian troops to retire.

### *The Third Week of February*

February 15.—Holland sends notes to Germany and Great Britain, regarding neutral shipping and the use of neutral flags, which are similar in argument to those of the United States.

A report of the war relief commission of the Rockefeller Foundation states that 20 per cent. of the 7,000,000 people of Belgium are unable to pay for their bread.

Figures made public at Washington show that American exports of war materials during the last four months of 1914 amounted to \$49,466,092, or more than four times the figures for the same period in the previous year.

February 16.—In a communication transmitted through the American Ambassador at London, Germany offers to withdraw from her intention to war against British merchant vessels if Great Britain will permit the free movement of foodstuffs to the civil population of Germany.

Great Britain seizes and places a guard upon the *Wilhelmina*, an American ship destined for a German port with a cargo of wheat for civilian consumption; the ship had entered Falmouth harbor for safety during stormy weather.

A Serbian report declares that the Albanian invaders have been driven back across the frontier.

Germany announces the reoccupation, after a short engagement, of Bielsk and Plock, in Russian Poland.

Austria reports continued progress in forcing the Russians out of Bukowina.

British and French aeroplanes and hydroplanes, forty machines in all, carry out a second bomb-dropping attack upon the German positions along the Belgian coast.

February 17.—Great Britain's second and more complete reply to the American protest against undue interference with American shipping is made public at Washington; it claims a desire and effort to be as lenient as possible with neutral shipping.

Germany declares that more than 50,000 Russians were captured during the recent retreat from East Prussia.



MAKING OUT LISTS OF THE LOST AND THE WOUNDED, THE NUMBERS INDICATING THE DESKS ASSIGNED TO THE VARIOUS REGIMENTS



Photographs by Medem Photo Service

CARD-INDEXING THE PRISONERS ACCORDING TO NATIONALITY A COLOSSAL TASK. TO JUDGE FROM THE ENORMOUS FIGURES GIVEN IN THE REPORTS

KEEPING SYSTEMATIC RECORD OF THE WOUNDED AND THE PRISONERS IN GERMANY



# RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From January 21 to February 17, 1915)

## PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

January 22.—In the Senate, the Committee on Military Affairs favorably reports measures reorganizing the militia and authorizing the enlistment of 20,000 additional men in the regular army. . . . The House adopts the Army appropriation bill (\$101,000,000).

January 23.—The Senate Democrats, in caucus, amend the Ship Purchase bill and bind themselves to support it.

January 25.—In the Senate, Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) for the second time warns against international complications which may be brought on by the enactment of the Ship Purchase bill. . . . In the House, the Pension appropriation bill (\$165,000,000) is reported from committee.

January 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Walsh (Dem., Mont.) defends the Administration's Ship Purchase bill in its international bearings.

January 30.—The Senate adjourns at midnight, after being continuously in session for thirty-seven hours, Republican members maintaining a filibuster to defeat the Ship Purchase bill. . . . In the House, Mr. Mann (Rep., Ill.) forces from the Naval appropriation bill, by a parliamentary objection, the provision for the establishment of a Naval Staff.

February 1.—In the Senate, a revolt of seven Democratic members (who demand amendments which would avoid foreign complications) imperils the Administration's Ship Purchase measure.

February 2.—In the Senate, the Philippines bill is reported from committee, with a recommendation for its immediate passage.

February 3.—In the Senate, the Administration leaders resort to filibustering methods to delay a vote on the Ship Purchase bill, pending the arrival of two absent Democrats and efforts to win over progressive Republicans and recalcitrant Democrats.

February 4.—The House fails to pass the Immigration bill, by the required two-thirds majority, over the President's veto; 261 members vote for the measure and 136 against it.

February 5.—The House passes the Naval appropriation bill (\$114,650,000), retaining the provision for two new battleships but providing for only eleven submarines.

February 8.—In the Senate, the arrival of the two Democratic members who had been absent balances the opposing forces, 48 to 48; the Republicans and insurgent Democrats resume their filibuster to prevent the passage of the Administration's Ship Purchase bill through the deciding vote of the Vice-President.

February 8-10.—The Senate sits in continuous session, dead-locked over the Shipping bill; an adjournment is taken after 52 hours and 10 minutes (a record session), when two progressive Republicans who have supported the measure announce that they will no longer permit it to block other important legislation.

February 13.—The Senate Democrats, in caucus (seven insurgents not being present) agree to press the passage of a special rule limiting debate; meanwhile efforts to pass a ship-purchase measure have been shifted to the House.

February 15.—The House, by vote of 232 to 44, passes a bill offered by Mr. Palmer (Dem., Pa.) prohibiting the interstate shipment of products made by child labor; at a caucus of Democratic members, it is agreed to support a compromise ship-purchase bill.

February 16.—The House adopts a special rule limiting debate to six hours, and passes by vote of 215 to 122 an Administration measure providing for government ownership and operation of merchant ships; 19 Democrats vote with the Republicans against it; the measure takes the form of an amendment to the Weeks naval auxiliary bill which has passed the Senate.

February 17.—In the Senate, the Shipping bill as adopted in the House proves unacceptable to the three progressive Republicans whose support was needed to pass the measure.

## AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

January 25.—The United States Supreme Court, in a divided opinion, declares unconstitutional the Kansas statute which prohibited an employer from requiring that an employee should not be a member of a labor union.

January 25-26.—John D. Rockefeller, Jr., explains to the Industrial Relations Commission his own and his father's relations with certain large corporations and with philanthropic organizations which they have endowed.

January 26.—The West Virginia legislature votes by large majorities to submit a woman-suffrage amendment at the 1916 election.

January 28.—President Wilson vetoes the Immigration bill, disapproving of the literacy test and the restrictions which would tend to shut the door to political refugees.

January 29.—The Tennessee House adopts a provision, previously passed by the Senate, for a referendum vote on woman suffrage; passage through the next legislature is necessary.

January 30.—The South Dakota Senate passes a bill, already adopted in the House, abolishing the death penalty.

February 1.—The New Jersey House unanimously adopts, on its second passage through the legislature, the resolution submitting a woman-suffrage amendment to the voters.

February 2.—A special grand jury investigating the riots of last spring in the Colorado coal fields returns indictments against many labor leaders.

February 3.—The New York Assembly unanimously adopts, on its second passage, a resolution submitting a woman-suffrage amendment to the voters. . . . President Wilson addresses the United States Chamber of Commerce, in session at Washington, suggesting amendments to the Anti-Trust

law which would permit American business men to combine for the promotion of foreign trade.

February 4.—At a caucus of Democratic Representatives of the Sixty-fourth Congress, held in Washington, Champ Clark, of Missouri, is renominated as Speaker and Claude W. Kitchin, of North Carolina, is named as floor leader. . . . The New York Senate unanimously approves the woman-suffrage amendment passed by the House; the Massachusetts Senate adopts a woman-suffrage measure on its second passage through the legislature; the North Carolina House rejects a woman-suffrage amendment.

February 5.—The Arkansas Senate, following affirmative action in the House, passes a statewide prohibition measure, to take effect January 1, 1916; the House adopts a woman-suffrage amendment previously passed in the Senate; submission to the voters will necessarily be delayed two years. . . . John D. Rockefeller, Sr., and Andrew Carnegie appear before the Industrial Relations Commission, at the hearings in New York, and testify regarding the philanthropic foundations which they have established.

February 6.—Governor Hays signs the prohibition bill passed by the Arkansas legislature.

February 9.—The Pennsylvania House adopts a measure, on its second passage through the legislature, submitting a woman-suffrage amendment to the voters.

February 10.—The Alabama legislature passes, over the Governor's veto, a bill prohibiting the publication or circulation within the State of newspapers carrying liquor advertisements, and prohibiting circular and billboard advertising of liquor.

February 11.—The Interstate Commerce Commission, recognizing new conditions confronting transcontinental railroads by the opening of the Panama Canal, reverses an earlier ruling and permits railroads to fix lower rates for through traffic to the Pacific Coast than to intermountain points.

February 12.—The Iowa Senate adopts statewide-prohibition and equal-suffrage amendments, and votes to bring about statutory prohibition by repealing the so-called Mule Law.

February 13.—The Interstate Commerce Commission rules that under the Panama Canal Act the Southern Pacific Railroad cannot retain ownership of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company so long as the steamship company maintains a service through the Canal; railroads will be permitted to operate water lines unless actual competition is thereby prevented.

February 16.—The Massachusetts House and the New Jersey Senate adopt woman-suffrage amendments, completing legislative action, to be submitted to the voters in the fall.

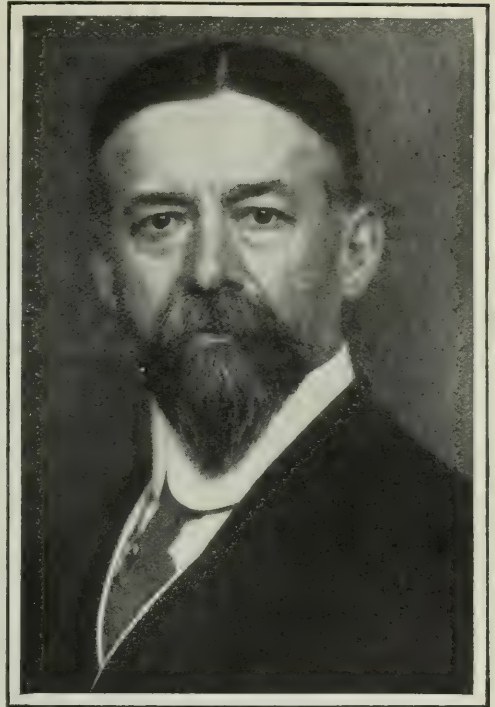
#### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

January 25.—The Coutinho ministry in Portugal resigns, and Gen. Pimenta Castro is selected to form a non-partisan cabinet.

January 27.—Provisional President Garza abandons Mexico City with his government and military forces, upon the approach of General Obregon, the Carranza leader.

January 29.—The Peruvian ministry resigns.

January 30.—Lu Cheng-Hsiang becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in China.



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JAMES CREELMAN

(Mr. Creelman began his journalistic career at the age of twelve, in a printer's shop. He became a reporter on a New York City newspaper, and attracted attention by enterprise and daring. In later years he won fame as an interviewer, as war correspondent, and as newspaper and magazine editor. He died "in harness" last month, at Berlin, in his fifty-sixth year.)

February 1.—It is learned that Gen. Jesus Carranza, a brother of one of the Provisional Presidents of Mexico, has been executed by General Santibanez, who has been leading a revolt on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

February 3.—General Villa assumed the executive power in northern Mexico, and appoints a cabinet of three members, with headquarters at Aguascalientes.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

January 26.—It is reported in Peking that Japan has made demands upon China relating to concessions to foreigners, including the transfer to Japan of all German and Austrian concessions, and a pledge that China shall not in the future grant concessions to any nation except Japan.

February 10.—General Carranza, one of the factional Presidents of Mexico, orders the Spanish minister to leave the country within twenty-four hours, because of alleged refuge given to a Spanish subject accused of aiding Villa.

February 11.—Conferences between representatives of Japan and China, at Peking, are suspended or terminated; the Chinese Government maintains that Japan is exceeding its rights.

February 12.—Representatives of the United States, China, and Holland sign at The Hague the protocol of the anti-opium convention of 1912.



## OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

January 21.—A boiler explosion on the United States armored cruiser *San Diego*, off the Pacific coast of Mexico, causes the death of six sailors.

January 25.—Transcontinental telephone communication becomes a reality, due to improvements in wires and apparatus; in the first conversation across the continent, Alexander Graham Bell (inventor of the original telephone), in New York, talks with Thomas W. Watson, his assistant, in San Francisco.

January 26.—The steamship *Washingtonian*, one of the largest freighters flying the American flag, with a cargo of raw sugar from Honolulu, Hawaii, and the large schooner *Elizabeth Palmer* are sunk after a collision near the Delaware Breakwater.

January 31.—The Japanese cruiser *Asama* runs aground on the coast of Lower California, and is believed to be a total wreck.

February 7.—The Lackawanna Railroad successfully tests a system of communicating by wireless telephone from a moving train to a station.

February 10.—Earthquake, hurricane, and tidal wave cause great destruction of property on Manua Islands, in the American Samoan group. . . . The price of bread in New York City is raised from five to six cents a loaf, because of the high cost of flour.

February 11.—It is learned that 24,200 persons were killed in the recent Italian earthquake; at Avezzano 96 per cent. of the population lost their lives. . . . Father Wlodimir Ledochowski, a Russian Pole, is elected to the Generalship of the Society of Jesus.

## OBITUARY

January 21.—Fanny M. Reed, formerly a noted soprano singer, 79.

January 22.—Anna Bartlett Warner ("Amy Lothrop"), author of many novels, 84. . . . Howard M. Hamill, president of the International Sunday School Association and a noted Confederate veteran, 65. . . . David H. Goodell, former Governor of New Hampshire, 80.

January 23.—George James Bryan, the noted anthologist and publisher, 63.

January 24.—Dr. Benjamin Sharp, zoologist and explorer, 56.

January 27.—Dr. James H. Parker, a prominent New York banker and cotton dealer, 72.

January 29.—Cyrus Fogg Brackett, professor emeritus of physics at Princeton University, 82.

January 31.—Dr. Louis A. Rodenstein, a prominent New York surgeon. . . . Leon Revillon, the New York fur merchant.

February 2.—John Patterson Grant, a prominent Richmond banker, 84.

February 3.—Alban Jasper Connant, noted for his oil portraits of Lincoln, 94.

February 4.—Dr. Franz Adickes, former Mayor of Frankfurt, Germany, and founder of the University of Frankfurt, 68. . . . Mary Elizabeth Braddon, the noted English novelist, 78.

February 7.—John Jasper, formerly Superintendent of Schools in New York City, 77. . . . Ex-Judge Oliver H. Horton, of Chicago, a prominent lay member of the Methodist Church, 80.

February 8.—James C. Fargo, former president of the American Express Company, 86. . . . Charles Stewart Vane-Tempest-Stewart, Marquis of Londonderry, Irish landowner and noted opponent of Home Rule, 62. . . . Sir Francis Xavier Langelier, Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec, 76.

February 9.—Norman Bruce Ream, financier and organizer of industrial corporations, 70. . . . Nicholas Williams McIvor, former Consul General and Judge of the United States Court, at Yokohama, 55.

February 10.—Pembroke D. Gwaltney, of Virginia, known as the "peanut king," 78.

February 11.—John Langbourne Williams,

the Richmond banker, philanthropist, and philosopher, 83. . . . Samuel T. Pickard, biographer and literary executor of Whittier, 82.

February 12.—Fanny Crosby, the famous blind hymn writer, 94. . . . James Creelman, the noted American journalist, 55.

February 14.—Prof. James Irving Manatt, head of the Greek department at Brown University, and former United States Consul at Athens, 70.

February 15.—Rev. Dr. George Washburn, for many years president of Robert College at Constantinople, 82. . . . Simon Brentano, the noted bookseller and publisher, of New York, 56.

February 17.—Brig. Gen. Greenleaf A. Goodale, U. S. A., retired, 75.



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

## FANNY CROSBY, THE HYMN WRITER

(Although afflicted with blindness almost from her birth, Miss Crosby became one of America's most famous women. Moved by a deep religious feeling, she began in middle life to exercise her wonderful poetic talent in the writing of hymns, many of which have attained universal popularity. She died in her Connecticut home last month, in her ninety-fifth year)

# CARTOONS—MOSTLY ON FOOD, SHIPPING, AND NEUTRALITY

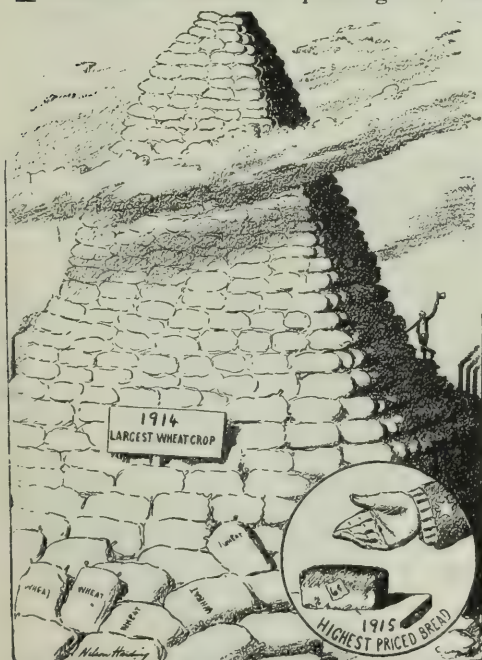


© By John T. McCutcheon

WILL THERE BE ENOUGH BREAD TO GO AROUND?

From the Tribune (Chicago)

THE question of the food supply of the world has become a pressing one, not only to the warring nations, but to other countries as well. Wheat has risen in price, and the cost of bread per loaf has accordingly also gone up.



RECORD YEARS FOR BOTH WHEAT CROPS AND THE PRICE OF BREAD

From the Eagle (Brooklyn)

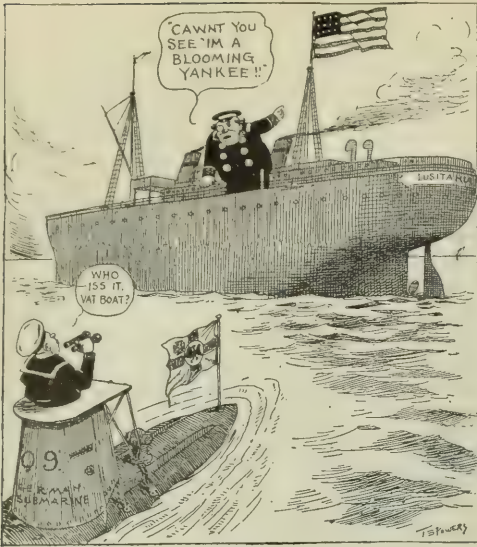


COTTON IS WAKING UP!

(See article on page 338 of this issue)

From the Journal (Minneapolis)

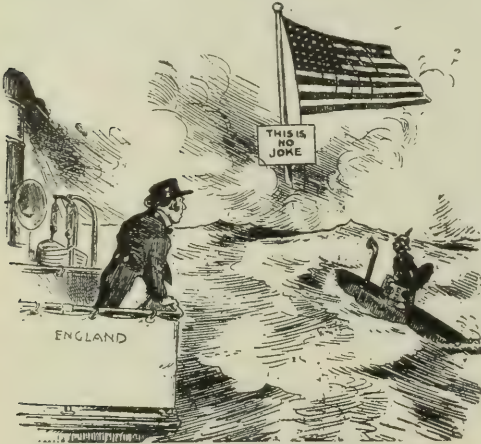




JOHN BULL USES THE AMERICAN FLAG FOR PROTECTION From the *American* (New York)



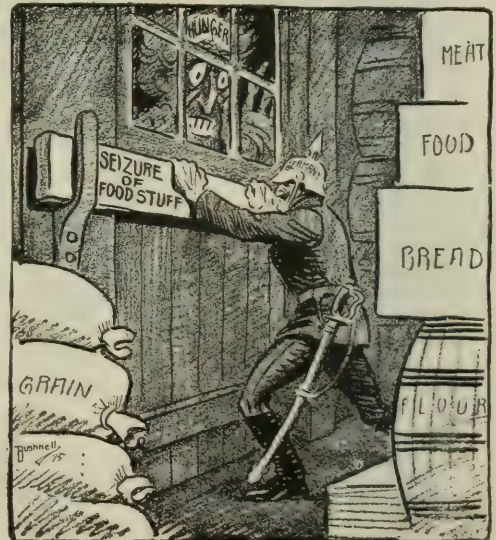
UNCLE SAM (handing his notes of protest to both England and Germany): "Now gentlemen!" From the *Evening News* (Newark)



A WORD TO THE WISE IS SUFFICIENT From the *Record* (Philadelphia)

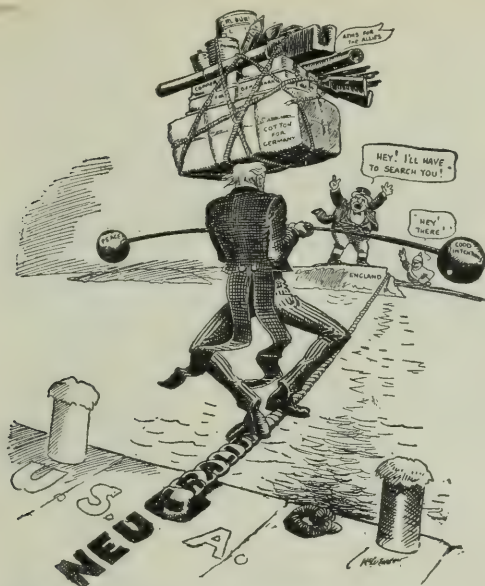


THE WAKE OF THE WILHELMINA From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



GERMANY PREPARING FOR A SIEGE From the *Tribune* (South Bend, Indiana)

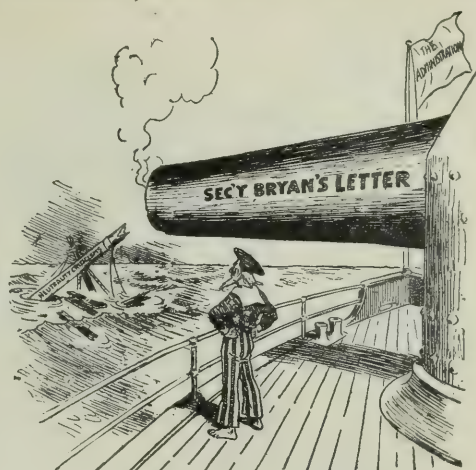
Proposed plans for drastic measures and retaliatory action as between the belligerents, last month, threatened international complications. Germany declared a war zone about England, dangerous to neutral ships, and England responded with a threat to blockade Germany. The English, also, used the American flag on their vessels for protection against German submarines. The situation resulted in a vigorous protest from the United States to England and Germany.



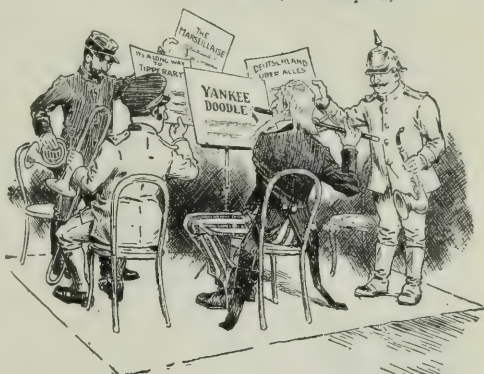
© John T. McCutcheon

UNCLE SAM'S DIFFICULT TASK  
From the Tribune (Chicago)

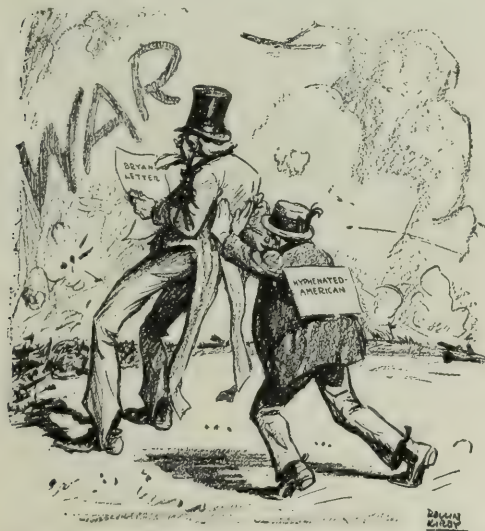
Uncle Sam's task as a neutral is not a particularly easy one. With complaints from one side that we are selling munitions of war to the other, and with the pernicious internal activity of the "hyphenated" American, Uncle Sam's clear course is to keep his "square deal store" open to the world on a basis of absolute impartiality, and, waving aside the national airs of the belligerents, stick to his own good tune, "Yankee Doodle."



IT WAS A REGULAR 42-CENTIMETER REPLY  
(—Was Mr. Bryan's letter in answer to German criticisms of American shipments to European belligerents)  
From the Record (Philadelphia)



THE BELLIGERENTS: "THIS THE ONLY NEUTRAL TUNE, UNCLE"  
From the Record (Philadelphia)

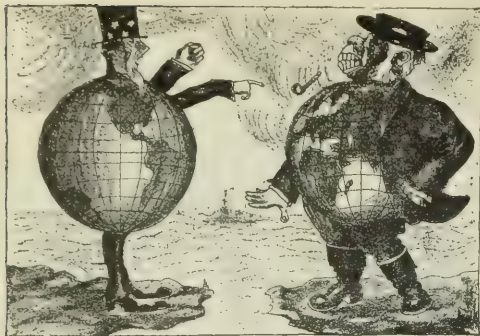


TRYING TO PUSH THE UNITED STATES INTO THE EUROPEAN WAR  
From the World (New York)

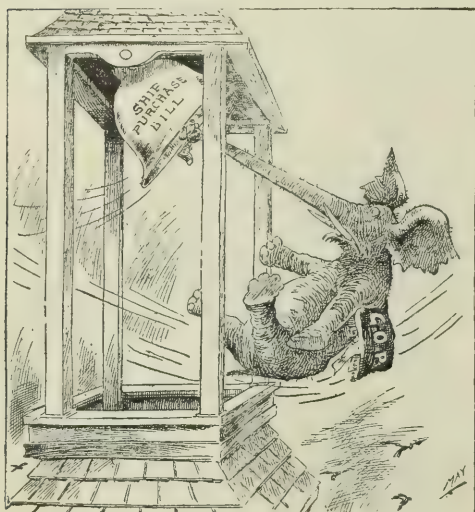


UNCLE SAM'S POSITION AS A SHOP-KEEPER  
From the Tribune (Los Angeles)





AN EARNEST WORD TO JOHN BULL  
From Kikeriki (Vienna)



CURFEW SHALL NOT RING TO-NIGHT  
(—"Curfew" being the ship purchase bill in Congress, the determined opposition coming from the filibustering Republican Senators)

From the Times (Detroit)



JOHN BULL (seeing Uncle Sam at the ship shop):  
"Blawst it, wot's 'ee loafin' around 'ere for? 'E's no sailor"

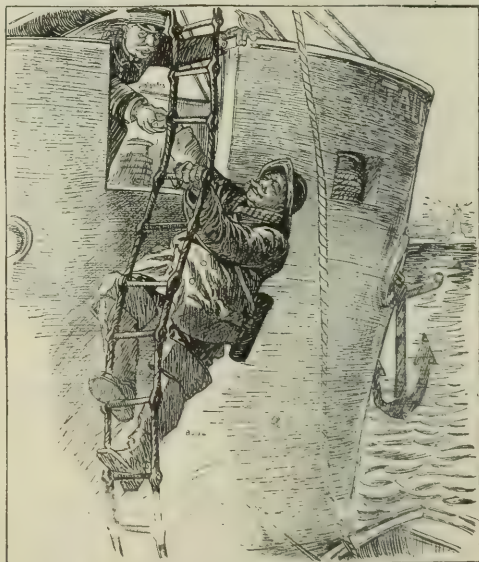
From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland)



THE UNITED STATES PROTESTS TO ENGLAND  
PRESIDENT Wilson: "This impudent searching of my ships—I shall soon get tired of it!"

From Kikeriki (Vienna)

The two cartoons above refer to the American protest to England on the subject of the detention of American ships.



BON VOYAGE FOR ITALY—A GERMAN VIEW

Salandra [Italian Premier] is undoubtedly an excellent skipper, but even the best captains take a good pilot [von Bülow] aboard in difficult waters

From Lustige Blätter © (Berlin)

# A REVIVAL IN AMERICAN SHIPBUILDING

THE year 1914 was one of the poorest for the American shipbuilder. The year 1915 promises to be one of unprecedented activity. In the first thirty-six days of the present year, orders for forty-eight ocean vessels were booked and among the lot was a contract for the building of two ships for British owners. The head of one of the large shipyards announces that he has closed enough business to keep 6000 men engaged for from two to three years. Plans have been drawn and prices asked on sixty more ocean vessels. Apparently every American shipyard will be working to capacity throughout the year and the American merchant marine will have the largest addition to its tonnage in history.

Two factors enter into this remarkable revival,—first, the European war and, second, the Panama Canal. The struggle abroad has progressed far enough for American shipping men to appreciate its effects upon the ocean carrying trade. Hitherto the American has labored under serious handicaps. It costs more to build a ship in an American than in a European yard. Wages here are higher. Labor represents the largest single item in the building of a ship. It costs more, too, to operate a vessel under the American flag than under that of any other nation, our laws requiring larger crews.

## AMERICA'S OPPORTUNITY

The war, it is believed, will bring a readjustment that will wipe out these differences. Through the hundreds of thousands of men killed and the millions wounded, it is expected there will be so great a scarcity of labor in Europe when the war ends that wages will be increased to a level never reached there before, and the heavy taxation imposed on all industries to pay the war debts will raise the costs of products to a decided degree. Added to all this is the fact that while hundreds of merchant craft have been sunk by commerce destroyers, the regular output of European shipyards has ceased.

There is one more thing of which time alone can measure the importance. That is the depletion and disorganization of the forces formerly engaged in shipbuilding by being called to military duty.

Most of the vessels for which orders have been placed are of good size, ranging from 6000 to 9500 tons net registry. While the majority are designed as additions to the fleets of established American lines such as the Munson, American-Hawaiian, Porto Rico, Grace, Ocean, etc., some are intended for transatlantic service in competition with the cargo boats that have had command of this trade for many years. In gross tonnage the forty-eight vessels contracted for represent probably as much if not more than the total average for one full year in recent times in merchant craft.

## THE NEED FOR SHIPS

Nothing is more erratic or subject to more violent change than ocean rates. A period of high freights and pronounced activity in sea commerce has followed former wars. The American shipping men see, added to what usually follows war, a tremendous trade for them from the Panama Canal and the opening of all South America to American business. A few illustrations would serve to support their belief. One of the leading concerns in Chile has been negotiating for 1,500,000 tons of coal to be delivered 300,000 a year for the next five years. To transport this amount of coal to Chile would require a fleet of about ten vessels. Heretofore, Chile has obtained its coal from Australia.

The financial depression from which Argentina, Brazil, and Paraguay suffered is reported to be nearly over so far as Argentina and Paraguay are concerned, owing to the high prices obtained for South American wheat, corn, hides, beef, and other products. A report to the National City Bank from its representative at Buenos Aires is most optimistic. He pictures the need of goods in that country as urgent and large. One item he specified was, that of window glass alone there would be ready sale for a whole shipload.

More important than anything else in his report was the statement that South America is getting away from its insistence on long credits and hereafter will be reasonably prompt in settling its accounts.

R. S.





THE PALACE OF HORTICULTURE, REFLECTED IN  
THE WEST LAGOON OF THE SOUTH GARDENS



A VIEW OF THE TOWER OF JEWELS ACROSS THE  
SUNKEN POOL OF THE NORTH APPROACH



THE FACADES OF THE PALACES OF MINES AND  
TRANSPORTATION



THE TOWER OF JEWELS, THE DOMINATING  
FEATURES OF THE EXPOSITION

THE MAGNIFICENCE OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION AT NIGHT



© Gabriel Moulin.

THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION AS SEEN FROM AN AEROPLANE

# OPENING OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

BY CHARLES C. MOORE

(President of the Exposition)

*FOUR years ago California accepted at the hands of the Congress of the United States, the responsibility of becoming the hostess State of the nation for the nation's celebration of the completion of the Panama Canal.*

*She has given to the performance of that duty her utmost energy and earnestness. More than twenty million dollars have been contributed to the work of preparing a place where the achievements of all nations could be shown in a great Exposition. The nations have responded to a degree never before equaled, and our own nation, by its separate States and by its individual manufacturers and producers, has demonstrated its appreciation of the commercial importance of the great project.*

*To-day our work stands complete. When this appears the Exposition will have opened, —on February 20,—the date scheduled three years ago. World events unforeseen when this date was fixed have not altered the original plan, nor will they affect, except perhaps to enhance, the importance or the success of the project.*

*To the nation's great celebration, California invites the world.*



# EUROPE—AFTER THE WAR

A BALKAN STATESMAN'S PREDICTIONS AS TO THE WAR'S DURATION  
AND THE ADJUSTMENTS THAT WILL FOLLOW

BY DR. IVAN YOVITCHÉVITCH

(Secretary-General of the Council of State of Montenegro)

[Under the title "Three Balkan Craters," we published in our issue for last August a most significant statement from the pen of a high official of Montenegro. Last month there came to us from Cetinje, by way of the Italian postal service in Albania, the remarkable survey of the war situation and its probable outcome that we present herewith. Dr. Yovitchévitch is a statesman of high accomplishment and wide acquaintance. In a private letter he sets forth the fact that the Montenegrin people are in great distress through food shortage and poverty as the result of a series of wars, and asks if it may not be possible for Americans to give some share of their relief to this people. His appeal is worthy of response. Who will help the Montenegrins?—THE EDITOR.]

IN an authorized interview for the AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS, last summer, I ventured to predict that war was imminent in Europe, and that the principal causes of war lay smouldering in the Balkans, which I had pictured as a slumbering volcano with three craters. My boldness in predicting the future appeared most presumptuous, perhaps the more so since the twentieth century is not an age of prophets.

Yet from my thorough knowledge of the situation in the Balkans I was practically certain that one of the craters would burst forth and inflame all Europe. I would be very happy if I had been mistaken.

Alas, my prophecy was fulfilled and the "second Balkan crater,"—that is to say,—the ill feeling between Servia and Austria eventually cast the spark that set Europe on fire; and for many months the horrors of war have increased at a frightful rate, the number of the dead, the maimed, the widows and orphans receiving a daily increment. Ancient monuments lie in ruins; entire countries are ravaged by fire, and the armies, mad with blood lust, have become such savages that they respect nothing that lies in their path. In the light of these horrible disasters one is obliged to conclude that there is but little difference between the warriors of to-day and the barbarian hordes of the Huns, who, under the leadership of their chief, Attila, sacked a part of southern Europe; it is this that has covered the twentieth century with shame.

Sad and impressive instances are the evil deeds of the German armies that hurled themselves like a plague upon unhappy Belgium. These armies committed such atrocities

that the whole world was stupefied and dumfounded. They burned towns and villages, massacring on their way men, women, and children. The Austrian armies did the same thing in the countries that they occupied for a time; of this the poor Serbian nation knows something. The armies of the other belligerents will do identically the same as soon as they arrive in the countries inhabited by the German race. Europe is, then, a hell, and its inhabitants are devils who kill one another like the lowest savages, to the everlasting shame of our twentieth-century civilization.

## *How Long Will This Lamentable Situation Continue?*

The duration of this war is a matter of worldwide concern. May I be permitted to express my opinion that the contest must continue for a long time and for this reason: A half-year has passed since the beginning of hostilities and the belligerents are at about the same point that they were at the outset, so far as victory is concerned. It is true that the losses are enormous, but who are the vanquished and who are the victors?

It is indisputable that this question remains unanswered up to this moment, and each belligerent is still animated with the firm resolve to conquer, and with the same hope that was cherished in the first days of hostilities. The second reason that makes me believe that this deplorable situation must last a long time is this: The two great giants, worthy combatants one of the other, for their strength, intrepidity and tactics, the Russian and the German, who are the pre-

ponderant factors in this monstrous struggle, do not seem to want to engage in a decisive combat. They are like two wrestlers who are afraid of each other and delay taking the hazard of a grapple; each, circling his adversary, hopes to conquer him when his strength is exhausted.

When these two big European antagonists, the Russian and the German, employ the tactics of two fear-struck wrestlers, it goes without saying that the European war will continue for a considerable period, granting that the two antagonists are equally matched in their economic and physical strength and in the matter of their *morale*.

It appears incontestable that the horrors of this war, which are without parallel, will continue for a lengthy period, and that the unfortunate people must endure more suffering and atrocities without number.

#### *How Will the Terrible Struggle End?*

The second question, not less interesting, is to know how this European war will end. When the hostilities began it was extremely difficult to give an opinion on either side, but one can say now that the chances of victory are on the side of Russia and her allies. One can say that the German plan has failed. This plan was to fall suddenly upon France and crush her completely before the concentration of the Russian armies could be accomplished, and then, thanks to her network of railroads, transport the German troops to the Russian frontier and defeat the armies of the Czar before their complete mobilization could be effected. But on one side the heroic resistance of the Belgians and on the other the quick mobilization of the Russians caused Germany to change her plans and transport a large part of her forces to East Prussia, which General Rennenkampf had penetrated with a Russian army. That saved Paris and perhaps the whole French army.

Austria-Hungary on her side was persuaded that Serbia and Montenegro would be subdued in a short time and that, once in touch with Bulgaria and Turkey, she would force Rumania to join the two other states against Russia. However, the heroic resistance of the Serbs and the Montenegrins astonished the whole world, and because of the three above-mentioned facts, the plans of Germany and Austria-Hungary could not be carried out. And this plan having failed at the beginning of the war it has no chance whatever of succeeding in the future.

Therefore it appears that the European war cannot be brought to an end by decisive

battles, but only by the complete exhaustion of one of the parties, and as Germany and Austria-Hungary are comparatively in a state of blockade, one can say without fear of being mistaken that these two powers will be the more quickly exhausted; their adversaries being masters of the sea, they can without doubt resist longer from an economic point of view.

To conclude, then, we can say with certainty that the Russians and their allies have the best of it, and that this terrible struggle will end in the complete defeat of Germany and Austria-Hungary.

#### *The Probable Consequences*

And what will be the result? The outcome of the present war may be conceived thus:

First: Russia will expand at the expense of Austria-Hungary, will annex Galicia, and will demand from Turkey the occupation of Constantinople and a part of Asia Minor.

Second: France will regain her former provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.

Third: England will be benefited by gaining possession of the German colonies, as well as a part of Asia Minor.

Fourth: Belgium will receive as recompense for her stoic resistance the Duchy of Luxemburg.

Fifth: The two kindred kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro will receive as a reward for a struggle not less stoical, the two Austrian provinces peopled by the Serb race.

Sixth: Italy as a reward for her neutrality would receive the provinces of Austria-Hungary inhabited by Italians.

Seventh: Rumania for the same reason would receive Bukovina, an Austrian province peopled largely by Rumanians.

As to Turkey, which has been dragged into the war by German political intrigue, she will be erased from the map as an independent country. It will be the same with Albania; for her inhabitants, who are in a state of perpetual anarchy, cannot long exist as an independent people.

This, then, is my view of the conditions that will be imposed upon the conquered. Perhaps changes may be even greater; for it is possible that Austria-Hungary, like Turkey, may cease to exist as an independent empire. Nor is it inconceivable that certain provinces might be snatched from Germany, as for example German Poland. But here you have in a few words my opinion of the actual situation now existing in Europe, and my predictions for the future.



# THE WAR'S NEW ALIGNMENTS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. NEW HORIZONS

VIEWED from the military side, February was for Germany the most brilliantly successful month since October, when she took Antwerp and approached the very walls of Warsaw. Eastward her victories over the Russians were as complete in Bukovina as in East Prussia, and her armies brought new life to Austro-Hungarian efforts in the Carpathians. Only the defeat of a naval raid directed at the British coast and the loss of the *Bluecher* gave Berlin cause for regret.

Yet the solid and splendid triumphs of German arms had for the world less meaning than the official declarations which by their very defiance of international practise and neutral rights seemed to emphasize how serious for Germany had become the question of her food supply and how terrible was the advantage of sea power possessed by her most relentless and most hated enemy, England.

Napoleon, having conquered at Austerlitz and Jena and become temporarily master of Europe, had sought to crush British commerce by his famous Berlin and Milan decrees, the first of which proclaimed that the British Isles were in a state of blockade; the second declared that any ship which touched a British port was liable to be seized and treated as a prize. Germany, still holding Belgium, Northern France, Western Poland, in February struck at England with the proclamation that the waters about the British Islands were a war zone in which neutral ships would be exposed to attack and destruction by German submarines without the formality of search.

To her foes such a declaration could only mean that Germany foresaw the coming of a time when her own food supplies would fail. This view was further confirmed by an earlier official decree which placed all grain supplies in Germany under the control of the government. Taken together these two acts were accepted as confession that Germany feared defeat by starvation unless she could break the iron ring about her. To do this she must compel the British to raise the embargo on food supplies, and her only weapon

was the submarine, by which she might hope to intercept food ships bound for Britain and by compelling the English to suffer from food shortage force the abolition of the food blockade.

As to English ships, Admiral von Tirpitz had, in January, frankly proclaimed a policy of submarine aggression which contemplated sinking ships and crews and thus conduct a reign of terror on the high seas. In February the campaign opened, not by sinking crew and ships, but by torpedoing several ships at the very mouth of the Mersey and setting their crews ashore. Such a course must and did provoke unfavorable criticism among the neutrals, but to extend this policy to neutral ships was to open new horizons, was a frank confession that the German campaign to win sympathy abroad had given way to a stern necessity to make war as terrible as possible for the foe even at the expense of neutrals.

This policy, too, was of utmost interest to Americans, because it was, after all, aimed chiefly at American ships, likely to be the bearers of supplies to the British Islands. What Germany actually sought was not to shut off American ships from England, but by threat to compel Americans to urge Great Britain to remove its embargo on food for Germany, carried in neutral bottoms, and, if this request were refused, to prohibit the shipping of arms and supplies to the Allies. By this time the campaign of German-Americans to have the American Congress prohibit the exportation of arms and ammunition to belligerents had failed, and the quantity of ammunition flowing from the United States to the allies, and particularly England, had become enormous.

A discussion of the American policy as revealed in the note to Germany and the similar note to Great Britain, evoked by the use of the American flag by British passenger steamships, is outside the field of this review. But the condition of the German mind and the causes for the German action are of obvious pertinence, supply the salient detail of the war in February, and these will be discussed briefly after the progress of the operations East and West has been reviewed.

## II. POLITICS AND STRATEGY IN THE EAST

In December and early January Austrian disaster had for the second time given the world reason to believe that a collapse of the Dual Empire might change the whole face of the conflict. While Russian armies again passed the central and eastern Carpathian passes other forces swept Bukovina and approached Transylvania. The occupation of the crownland was a fair invitation to Rumania to join the conflict on the Russian side and receive Bukovina as a bribe and Transylvania as a reward for participation.

For Germany the problem was promptly set to protect Hungary, grown impatient through disaster and anxious because of impending attack from Servia, from Galicia and Bukovina, and because of the possibility of Rumanian hostility. The resignation of Berchtold and the selection of Burian were evidences that within the Empire Hungarian apprehensions were recognized. The visit of Count Tisza to the Kaiser was a sign that Germany had been warned.

This warning Germany received with all possible attention and acted upon with amazing promptness. Thus in January, while the Russian occupation of Transylvania was being discussed, German troops were brought south and concentrated in lower Hungary. Their purpose, it was duly announced from Vienna and Berlin, was a new invasion of victorious but stricken Servia. Yet a few weeks later these troops appeared in Transylvania, and moved east parallel to the Rumanian frontier,—as a warning to the Hohenzollern king of this state that to take Transylvania he must fight the head of the Hohenzollern house.

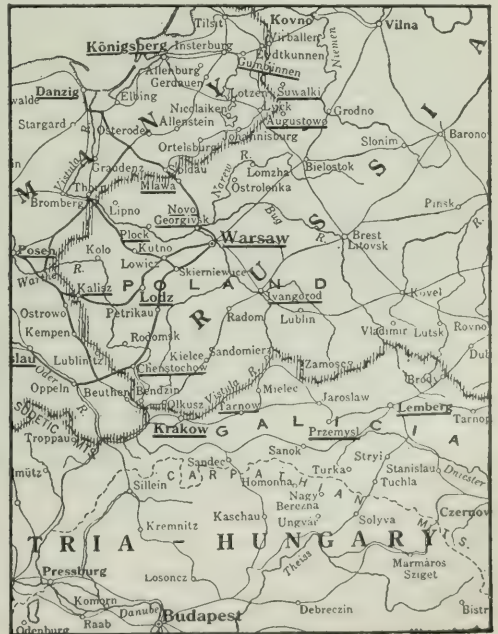
Under the pressure of these troops Russian armies in Bukovina speedily began to give ground. Step by step they were driven from before the Borgo and Kirilibaba passes, they were cleared out of the foothills of the Carpathians, and on February 17, when this is written, their retreat has halted at the Sereth River, a few miles south and west of Czernewitz and the Russian frontier, more than two-thirds of Bukovina has been reconquered and the Germans have interposed a wall of troops between the Czar and his prospective Rumanian allies.

In the same time there came from Budapest new rumors of Russian disaster, of the suicide of a Russian commander, and the capture of the general staff of the defeated army.

These rumors were properly discounted, but there remained the solid fact that Bukovina had been reconquered, the invitation to Rumania to participate in the war had been abruptly cancelled by German arms, and from Bucharest there came no more reports of the intervention of the Latin state without delay. On the contrary, there were credible reports of the release of vast stores of grain previously purchased by Germany and Austria, temporarily held up by the Rumanian Government, but now permitted to go north. Patently a military campaign waged for obvious political ends had succeeded.

Nor did the quieting of Rumania end the success of German policy. A German loan to Bulgaria again stimulated rumor that Ferdinand and his Bulgarian subjects were contemplating an entrance into the war on the German side, were planning to retake Macedonia, to strike at Servia and Greece, and, by cutting the Orient Railway, shut off the Slav state from Salonica and foreign supplies, and by invading the Valley of the Morava open a road between Berlin and Constantinople and thus unite the central or Continental nations. This rumor was perhaps idle, but it is interesting to note, as it indicates the change in a month from the January gossip of Rumanian attack upon Hungary.

Finally, from Albania came a fresh incursion into Servia along the marches of the



SCENE OF THE EASTERN FIGHTING



Drina, directed at Prisrend and the territory still populated by Albanians but ceded to Serbia and Montenegro by the Treaty of London. Here was new work for the Serbian army calculated to keep it occupied south of the Danube and away from Bosnia until Germany had dealt with Russian activity in the southeast. Such, briefly summarized, were the purpose and achievement of German arms in Bukovina. Thus promptly and completely had the Kaiser answered the appeal for help made a few weeks before; thus had he justified the affection and esteem in which he had long been held by the Hungarians and silenced the whispers of discontent in Budapest.

### III. THE BATTLE FOR THE CARPATHIANS

It was not merely for the saving of Transylvania that Hungary appealed to the Kaiser; even more serious was the menace which a Russian advance across the Carpathians south of Przemyśl and Lemberg had for the Magyar State. To explain this campaign it is necessary briefly to describe the military importance of the Carpathians and of the passes which connect Galicia with Northern Hungary.

Looking at the map, it will be seen that the Carpathian range stretches in a wide half circle from the southernmost corner of German Silesia to the frontier of Rumania. On a relief map it will be noted that this great circle is pierced almost at the center by a wide depression, due south of Przemyśl and Lemberg. West of this depression the Carpathians form three separate folds or ridges, from north to south the Western Beskids, the High Tatra and the Low Tatra. East of it, the range spreads out with high summits known as the Eastern Beskids and the Forest Mountains. While the High Tatra reach an elevation of nearly 9000 feet and the summits in the eastern mountains pass 6000, the elevation of the central depression is well below 2000 and through several gaps the main roads and railways from Hungary into Eastern Galicia find their way.

Three of these passes have been in the news of the war ever since the Russians entered Lemberg. These are, from west to east, the Dukla Pass, through which goes the main highway from Hungary to Galicia, that reaches the Galician Plain southeast of Tarnow; the Lupkow Pass, through which runs the railroad from Budapest to

Przemyśl, which joins the southern Galician trunk line at Sanok; and the Uzsok Pass, through which goes the main railway between Vienna and Lemberg and also an important military highway. South of the Uzsok is the Vereczke Pass, through which another trunk line goes from Vienna to Lemberg, crossing the southern Galicia line at Stryj, as the Uzsok line does at Sambor.

By these passes Russian raiding forces descended into the Hungarian Plain along the Theiss River in December, spread destruction and compelled the recall of Austrian army corps which at that moment were on the point of crushing the Serbian army about Valievo. It was over these four passes that the Austrians in November had come to the relief of Przemyśl in the campaign which ended in disaster along the San.

At the westernmost point of their advance the Russians penetrated Hungary to the environs of the city of Kassa, 170 miles from the Hungarian capital, and in January vast throngs of fugitives brought to Budapest evidence of Russian incursion. If Hungarian loyalty to the Austro-German alliance were to be maintained it was necessary for Germany to intervene in the Carpathians as in Bukovina. Once more Germany's resources in men and material were adequate.

Thus, while in January the battle reports spoke of towns in the valleys of the Latorze, the Ung and the Laborc, tributaries of the Theiss on the Hungarian side of the mountains, by February even the Russian bulletins began to concede the presence of Austro-German forces in the upper valleys of the Wislocka, the San, and the Dneister; that is, on the Galician side of the range. By February 17 the Russians conceded that they had yielded in all four of the passes and had taken their stand on the foothills of the Carpathians on the Galician side and along the southern Galician trunk line, which crosses the lines coming through the passes at Stryj, Sambor, Sanok, and Krasno.

In the meantime Przemyśl still held out, and by February 15, while German bulletins promised the deliverance of the gallant garrison of this town, now reduced to horse-meat, but promising to eat shoe leather before they yielded, Russian official statements grudgingly admitted that the garrison was showing new activity.

At the moment these lines are written the Austro-German campaign seems momentarily pausing at the foot of the passes on the Galician side. If the offensive can be pushed home along the roads and railways now



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE HARBOR OF ARCHANGEL—RUSSIA'S ICE-LOCKED PORT ON THE NORTH



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

RUSSIAN ARTILLERY IN THE SNOW BEFORE CRACOW



Photograph by Paul Thompson

BATUM—RUSSIA'S PORT ON THE BLACK SEA, THAT HAS BEEN BOMBARDED BY TURKISH BATTLESHIPS



partially occupied, the deliverance of Galicia, held since September 1, must follow. But already the whole Russian offensive along the Carpathians from the Rumanian frontier to the Tatra has been halted, thrown back, cleared out of the important passes. The invasion of Hungary is no longer discussed, the reconquest of Galicia is the question of the hour.

While the Russians have thus been driven out of the Carpathians, they have been checked about Tarnow, fifty miles east of Cracow, which is no longer threatened with siege. Such, briefly, is German achievement in defense of Hungary, an achievement in which Austro-Hungarian troops shared largely, but for which the chief credit must go to the German.

#### IV. EAST PRUSSIA IS REDEEMED

To answer the Austro-German thrust through Bukovina and over the Carpathians the Russians chose to strike at East Prussia. Strategically such a move was advantageous because it meant moving troops a far shorter distance away from Warsaw, which remained the center of military operations in the whole eastern front. Practically, could East Prussia be overrun, the whole Russian front would be straightened, a great province, a source of food supply to Germany, would be conquered, and ultimately the German position between the Bzura and the Nida in Russian Poland would be exposed to attack in the flank and rear.

Thus, while the main Russian and German armies faced each other west of Warsaw on the lines they had taken when Hindenburg's great offensive against the Polish capital had been halted in December, new armies were directed against the German positions north of the Vistula and south of the Niemen, on a front from Tilsit to Johannsburg, while another force moved down the north bank of the Vistula toward Thorn.

Again it is necessary to glance at the map to grasp the operations. Inside the eastern frontier of East Prussia some fifty miles there extends from north to south between Insterburg and Johannsburg that intricate tangle of water known as the Msurian Lakes, out of which flows the Angerapp River, which joins the Inster at Insterburg to make the Pregel, a stream that enters the sea at Koenigsberg. In this region Rennenkampf had suffered his great disaster in September at Tannenberg. To this obstacle the Russians had returned in October after defeating a

German invasion of Suwalki Province at the Battle of Augustovo.

For three months Russian and German forces had faced each other in this region with little or no change of position. Now the Russians undertook to turn the Germans out of their strong position behind the Msurian Lakes by attacking from the north and south; that is, by coming in on the flanks. At the outset this move met with apparent success. Coming west on the solid ground between the Niemen and the Angerapp rivers, the Russians approached Tilsit, took Pilkallen, began to talk again of a siege of Koenigsberg. At the same time, to the south of the Msurian region, between the East Prussian frontier and the Vistula, they made headway toward Thorn.

In the first week in February, however, Hindenburg countered with terrific force. The first sign was a renewal of the German offensive south of the Vistula and along the Bzura-Rawa front. On this line the Germans began a series of desperate assaults, which were announced as a new drive at Warsaw. Petrograd proclaimed the slaughter in these fights the greatest in the whole war, and there were circumstantial reports that the Kaiser himself had been shocked by the sacrifice of life in a forlorn undertaking.

By the second week in this month, however, the truth became apparent. The German attacks had been mere screening movements to cover the withdrawal of troops from this front to East Prussia and very soon Petrograd began to concede defeat and retreat in East Prussia, while Berlin announced a second Tannenberg and the capture of 40,000 Russians. In any event it was clear that by the use of automobiles, by again employing the strategic railways along the East Prussian frontier, the Germans had rushed overwhelming forces into East Prussia, beaten the Russian flanking force between the Niemen and the Angerapp and completely redeemed East Prussia, save for a little corner about Lyck.

On February 17 German troops were advancing eastward all along the front from the Vistula to the Niemen, were across the Russian frontier in many places, and were still driving the Russians back toward their fortresses of Kovno, Grodno, Bielestok, and Ostrolenka; that is, behind the Niemen and the Narew. Seven months after the war had broken out German soil was practically free of Russians, and from the Rumanian frontier to the Baltic German troops, with the support of their Austro-Hungarian allies,

were advancing. It was then, small wonder, that the Kaiser himself should congratulate his armies on achievements which, as he justly said, exceeded all expectation.

In this situation it was conceivable that a German drive at Warsaw from the north, defeated by weather rather than Russian arms in December, might be resumed. But as the Polish spring approached and the roads became impassable, military authorities began to forecast a new German effort in the West, where spring would bring good roads. At the least Germany could now choose, and in the East the initiative was hers. If Russia had, on the whole, done more than had been expected of her, she had so far failed to harvest decisive results, and was at a standstill.

## V. STILL THE DEADLOCK IN THE WEST

While Russia had met with complete failure in the East, while Germany had multiplied armies on the whole front from the Baltic to the Pruth, and won notable triumphs, she had displayed no weakness on the West. Not only had she beaten down all that was left of the much-heralded French offensive in Alsace, retained the ground won along the Aisne before Soissons and about Rheims, and held off the British attack upon La Bassée, but eastward of Rheims, about Souain, she had, on the confession of French official statements, overwhelmed a French detachment and made good her triumph.

In a word, the deadlock in the West was unbroken in February and nowhere was there the slightest indication that the Allies were now making progress, even by inches, toward the liberation of French soil. Reports of the arrival of British reinforcements continued, but military observers, measuring the strength of the British army by the front it still occupied, maintained that as yet there were not more than 220,000 troops of all arms and of all races under the British colors on the Continent.

That the French and English had been able to manufacture heavy artillery to match the Germans was conceded on all sides, and superiority for new British guns was claimed in official statements. That sufficient ammunition was in their hands was suggested by German statements of the discovery of American supplies among the captures. In arms and ammunition the gap between Germany and her opponents had plainly been permanently bridged. In numbers it was stated

by many, whose views deserve credence, that the Germans had now less than 1,000,000 on the western front, were outnumbered at least two to one; yet such was the use they made of captured railways that their numbers remained wholly adequate for their task.

In February, too, military observers commented freely upon the growing difficulty of the Allied task. There was no real belief that Germany could again sweep south, no notion that her successes could be more than local; what was in the minds of military critics was the fact that there had been allowed to Germany so many months to fortify her lines behind her front that months, and even several years, might pass before there could be any real hope that Lille, St. Quentin, Maubeuge would be freed from the invader by military operation.

What was in the minds of all observers was the prospect that the defeat of Germany, if it were to be achieved in advance of the slow and terrible attrition of years of conflict, must come from the use of naval power and not by any spectacular or immediate military operation. In September the French and English had attempted to turn the Germans out of France by a flank move to Belgium. This had failed. In December and January a second effort by a general offensive from Switzerland to the sea had failed, had resulted in a loss of territory, insignificant but humiliating, in a loss of life all official reports concealed.

Military men paid full tribute to the strength and efficiency of the French army. Whatever its state in August, it was in February fit for any possible task. But until England's new million had come there was small hope for the French of clearing their own soil and there was no mistaking the fact that the month brought with it a depression not equaled since the Battle of the Marne, a depression not revealed in any desire to make peace, but in a new understanding of the terrible sacrifices that were to come, must come before there could be hope of peace.

For the Allies, February was a month comparable with the year 1862 in the Civil War, when the American people first began to take measure of the meaning of war and the North began to comprehend the extent of its task. Yet by commercial treaties, by mutual loans, by the general scheme of pooling resources and efforts, Allied statesmen gave new promise of enduring, and Petrograd, now facing defeat, echoed the determination of Paris in early September, to continue until victory was achieved.



## VI. GERMANY'S FOOD PROBLEM

It now remains to discuss the problem of food supply, which in February was revealed by German action to be the chiefest concern of the Kaiser's ministers. It is perhaps best to approach this question first from the German point of view and then to refer to the meager guidance given by international law.

For Germany, the first months of the war had settled one thing. As has often been pointed out in this magazine, the chance to conquer Europe vanished at the Marne. The problem that remained was whether Europe could conquer Germany either by military effort or by using seapower to starve the civilian populations of Germany and her Austrian ally.

Six months of effort to conquer Germany earned for the Allies little of real value. In February as in September Germany occupied practically all of Belgium, much of Northern France, and of Western Poland. The factory regions of the province of Hainault and of the Department of the Nord, the coal deposits of Lens, the iron mines of Briey, the richest industrial regions in Continental Europe, outside of Germany, remained in the Kaiser's hands. To defend his frontiers on alien soil was still possible.

In this situation Germany might hope to stand off her enemies, to take such a tremendous toll of human life as the price of yielding not German but French, Belgian, and Russian territory, that her enemies, through exhaustion, through sheer inability to continue the sacrifice, might consent to make peace, collectively or severally, if she were herself safe from peril. But if the British fleet should cut off the food supply from without, then victorious Germany might be brought to her knees and conquered provinces would be as Midas gold to her lips.

This purpose Great Britain now proclaimed. British fleets in the Channel, at Gibraltar, north of Scotland, had halted ships carrying copper, Germany's one great lack for ammunition manufacture; British pressure upon adjacent neutrals, upon Scandinavia, Holland, and Italy early began to check the flow of contraband to the Fatherland. The reports of a shortage of breadstuff in Germany had reached the outside world and presently came the decree of the government which brought the seizure by the government of all grains and the future distribution by the state.

With this step it became clear that Germany might face eventual famine unless she

could break the blockade. To break it she resolved upon the submarine blockade of England, which was, in fact, a proposal to sink all British merchant ships, with their crews if necessary, in the hope of making Britain endure the same danger of grain famine which now threatened Germany. But this was in reality an idle threat, for there were lacking to Germany sufficient submarines to maintain a real blockade and neutral ships were still able to serve England.

But if Germany could compel the neutral nations to bring England to abandon her purpose to consider foodstuffs contraband, she might still attain her end. To do this she staked all on a single throw, and following the precedent of Napoleon, the dangerous precedent which in the end proved fatal to him, proclaimed a war zone about the British Islands and warned neutral powers that their ships would, after February 18, be exposed to the same peril as British ships in this war zone. Patently what Germany expected was not to sink neutral ships, but that neutral nations, headed by the United States, would at once demand that England lift the embargo on foodstuffs. This was disclosed when the British, having seized the *Wilhelmina*, bound for Germany with grain, America was informed Germany would rescind her declaration if America would protest the seizure.

In substance Germany, now conceding that her own life might be in danger, told the world that her necessities put her beyond international law and indicated to them the way that they should act to escape German menace. For the United States the way was to threaten the Allies with a prohibition of the export of foods and ammunition, which German-Americans had vainly asked Congress to prohibit, unless the food embargo were lifted. To this the United States replied with the sharpest note that had come from Washington since the Cleveland message on the Venezuelan Boundary, and the other neutral nations, in less brusque language, asserted the same rights.

England, on her part, sent the *Wilhelmina's* cargo to the prize courts and indicated her determination to continue her embargo. It now remained for Germany to decide whether she would make good her words, neglect the American warning, and sink neutral ships, or admit defeat diplomatically. Her paper blockade had failed in its purpose wholly, and aroused the resentment of all neutrals, to whom German necessities bulked smaller than their own rights.



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

GERMANS IN THE TRENCHES IN THE VOSGES



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

A REGIMENT OF ENGLISH INFANTRY WAITING IN A FOREST COVER FOR THE WORD TO TAKE UP ITS POSITION  
IN THE TRENCHES



## VII. GERMANY'S CASE IN LAW

In the matter of the grain embargo Germany could plead warrant in international law. Her case rested upon that principle stated in the Declaration of London which makes foodstuffs conditional contraband. Article 33 of this Declaration provides that "Conditional contraband is liable to capture if it is shown to be destined for the use of the armed forces or a government department of the enemy state, unless in this latter case the circumstances show that the goods cannot in fact be used for the purposes of the war in progress." Grain and foodstuffs are in this sense conditional contraband.

The decision of the German Government to take over the whole grain supply of the nation furnished the British Government with a technical justification for the seizure of the grain of the *Wilhelmina*, and for seizing future grain cargoes.

On the other hand, the case of the neutrals against German proposals was squarely bottomed upon international law. The first requisite for a blockade is that it shall be effective; that is, as was defined in the Declaration of Paris in 1856 and reaffirmed in the Declaration of London, "it must be maintained by a force sufficient, really, to prevent access to the enemy coast-line." To claim this for the few German submarines used to interrupt commerce in British waters was patently absurd. As it could not be effective, the German blockade was, in fact, a mere paper blockade, without standing. Again, a blockade must be continuously maintained, another task beyond the submarines.

In sum, then, the German declaration amounted to a threat to sink neutral ships in neutral waters; that is, on the high seas, if those waters were within the area described by Germany as a war zone. According to usage and international law, the right to search such ships, to seize ships or cargo, or both, under proper reserves belonged to the Germans, but they contended that the fact that British ships were using the American flag and merchant ships had been armed to

destroy submarines made such search dangerous, as the nature of the submarine would make it difficult.

The situation of the neutrals, and of the United States in particular, was complicated by the fact that the British passenger ships were using the American flag; the *Lusitania* had used the Stars and Stripes at the height of this debate. In consequence the American Government addressed a note of protest to England, not demanding that the practise be abandoned on any warrant of law, for none existed and the practise was recognized, but pointing out the peril it might bring to American ships. But such a protest could only inflame German resentment when it appeared at the same moment as the brusque warning to Germany.

For America, for all neutral nations, the new German policy was fraught with the gravest perils. Holland, Scandinavia, Italy, all these states traded with Great Britain, and all were forced now to consider the possibility of an "incident" which might bring them to the edge of war, an "incident" resulting merely from the exercise by them of those rights which had not been questioned in law since Napoleon, in a dilemma such as the Kaiser now found himself in, had issued his Berlin and Milan decrees, to which allusion has been made.

The moral effect of this German declaration unmistakably injured German prestige the world over. The very desperateness of the policy adopted was interpreted as disclosing internal weakness which served to counterbalance all the splendid victories of February. While Berlin celebrated Hindenburg's new triumphs in the Msurian Lake region, London, Paris, and Petrograd took new courage in Germany's apparent confession of weakness, and Washington looked with patent anxiety toward the new peril, which threatened to draw this country into the world-war despite its unaffected eagerness to remain neutral. To Americans it might seem that Germany had deliberately sought to embroil neutrals. To Germany's enemies it did seem that she had confessed weakness.





Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

AT THE FAMOUS AUSTRIAN STRONGHOLD OF PRZEMYSL

(Karl Franz Joseph, heir to the throne (in center), inspecting the fortress, accompanied by General Kusmanek, its defender)

## AUSTRIA-HUNGARY'S LEADERS IN THE NEW LINE-UP

[Austrian war censorship has been unrelenting, and scant and obscure has been the Austro-Hungarian military news that has come to the outside world. After half a year of war, even the military experts in America have hardly learned the names of the Austrian generals. It is apparent, however, that there has recently been a radical reorganization; and the following article embodies much interesting information as to the men who now lead armies and are hoping to recover, in the spring campaigns, some of the prestige that Austria-Hungary lost in the fall and winter.—THE EDITOR.]

THE Dual Monarchy has apparently pulled itself together for another, supreme effort. Germany's ally had ended the old year in a particularly unfortunate situation. The severe reverses of the autumn had brought in their train the threat of Servian invasion; the Russian menace as to Hungary became increasingly dangerous, and internal affairs in the empire began to develop in a disquieting manner. These conditions all made imperative a thorough reorganization of the Austro-Hungarian forces for a new and vigorous campaign against the threatened tidal wave of Slavs from both the East and the South. The German General Staff undoubtedly played a prominent part in this reorganization. There has been a realignment of forces, a shake-up among the leaders, and

an infusion of German genius and material, with the result that soon after the beginning of the year the military operations of Austria-Hungary took on a new and vigorous aspect.

### AUSTRIA-HUNGARY'S PROBLEMS

The military problems of Austria-Hungary had been beset with peculiar difficulties. In the first place, she lacked that close-knit unity which characterized the German military machine. Her army organization, in fact, is affected by the composite nature of the political system. Austria-Hungary, with two governments, has, really, three military establishments. First there is the Imperial Royal Army, which is the common force of the Empire. Then there are the Austrian "Landwehr," and the Hungarian "Honvéd,"



which are not "reserves," but constitute each the military force of its own country, with its own reserve organization. The annual classes of military cadets are apportioned among these three different military establishments, remaining subject to service afterward only in that organization to which they were originally assigned.

Austria-Hungary has an elaborate system of military education for the youth of the Empire, beginning with the public schools and ranging up through the various military institutions to the War Academy in Vienna. It is in this famous War Academy that the future generals are trained, and here army activities center both in peace and in war. Subject to a rigorous method of selection, the officers enter the academy as First Lieutenants, and receive a three-years' course of thorough training in all branches of military science, as well as in certain lines of general knowledge.



GENERAL VON KROBATIN,  
THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN  
MINISTER OF WAR

#### AN ARMY OF DIVERSE RACES

Austria-Hungary's threefold system complicates military matters and adds to the difficulties of mobilization. But army problems are also increased by the heterogeneous character of her soldiers,—the result of the numerous races comprising the population of the Empire,—Hungarians, Germans, Rumanians, Poles, Czechs, Croats, and so on. Regiments of one race are often officered by men of another, with consequent difficulties arising from the use of different languages. These racial elements are, however, recognized in the making up of the military organization, the distinctive racial qualities being utilized in that branch of the service where they will be most effective.

For instance, the cavalry, famous for its uhlans, dragoons, and hussars, is recruited mostly from the Hungarians, who are noted for their horsemanship and spirited dash, the temperaments of horse and rider being har-

moniously merged. In action these horsemen are literally ungovernable, and once in sight of the enemy, dash at them in impetuous and irresistible fashion. The Hungarian cavalry, for this reason, are often held back for the final charge.

Other racial elements similarly possess their peculiar traits. The Croats are excellent soldiers, acting well under military discipline. The Czechs (Bohemians), while not celebrated for military qualities, are noted for their endurance, while the warlike virtues of the Poles are historic. The artillery branch, which contributed so effectively to German success in Belgium, is recruited mostly from Austrians and Hungarian Swabians. The department of transportation, like the infantry, draws from all races. The Croats have always had a great reputation for loyalty to the Austro-Hungarian Empire. They have been considered as the natural protectors of the border and the strong bulwark of the Empire on the southwest.

#### WHERE ARE THE VARIOUS ELEMENTS FIGHTING?

Where the Bohemians are located in the present operations is a mystery. They do not seem to be appearing either in the con-



ARCHDUKE FRIEDRICH (LEFT) WITH THE CHIEF OF  
THE GENERAL STAFF, VON HOETZENDORF

templated Servian expedition, or in the eastern operations against the Russians. It is conjectured that they are being used in France. The general distribution on the fighting zones of the various racial elements is not, of course, a matter of public knowledge. It is surmised, however, that not a few regiments are represented on the Western firing line. Also, according to report, some of these Austrian troops in France have, for some strategic reason, exchanged uniforms with German soldiers.

In times of peace the military organization of the Empire is 50 per cent. Hungarian. Now the Hungarians compose two-thirds of the forces in the field. This is true of the new army for the invasion of Servia, under Archduke Eugen, as well as of the armies on the eastern frontier. A large force of Bavarians helps to make up the balance of Eugen's army, while the other third of the force in the Carpathians is composed of Croats and Polish volunteers. The Poles are said to be volunteering with a rapidity that promptly makes good all their losses in the field.

#### THE PERSONALITIES OF THE LEADERS

Hitherto these various racial elements have had their differences as among each other. This applies both to officers and men. With different national aims and ambitions, this was only natural. The German language, also, has long been a severe bone of contention in the army, the Austrian element insisting on its general use, and the Hungarians steadfastly resisting it. But now, it is claimed, conditions have changed, due to the facing of a common enemy. The military forces of the Dual Empire are reported to be acting together harmoniously for the common cause.

When it comes to the personalities of mili-

tary leaders, the situation is somewhat different from that of other nations. The Germans have their von Hindenberg, the French their Joffre, the Russians their Grand Duke Nicholas, and the English their General French. But Austria-Hungary has no military idol. This has been due to some extent to the system of the Austrian General Staff,

which has always exhibited a certain bureaucratic aloofness. The General Staff has also been responsible for the putting into the field of favored men who, while doubtless excellent theoretical strategists, did not fare so well in actual battle, and were, moreover, unable to establish sympathetic relations with their armies. Unlike the new leaders, Archduke Eugen and Archduke Joseph August, they were not popular with the masses. Probably the misfortunes attending the Russian and the Servian campaigns were in a measure due to these conditions. At any rate, reverses in the field were severe,



GENERAL CONRAD VON HOETZENDORF  
(Chief of the General Staff of the Austro-Hungarian Army)

discontent was brewing at home, and there seemed to be a demand for a change in leaders. There began, therefore, toward the end of the last year, a "weeding out" process.

The most striking example of these changes was the elimination of the ill-fated Field Marshal Potiorek,—a Bohemian by birth,—who conducted the Servian campaign last fall. Before the war General Potiorek was serving as chief of the government of Bosnia, and had also been connected with the operating bureau of the General Staff of the army. As a result of the initial successes of the Austrians in Servia, Potiorek was awarded signal honors by the Emperor Franz Joseph, only to incur, a little later, the wrath of his monarch and suffer dismissal for the subsequent reverses to the Austrian arms.

Other generals who were swept aside

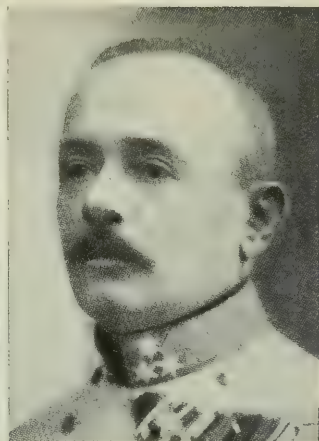




GENERAL DANKL



GENERAL KUSMANEK



GENERAL VON BOJNA

were General Liborius Frank, who had entered Belgrade victoriously at the head of the Fifth Army Corps, and General Auffenberg, who, early in the war, had been placed at the head of an army corps and was concerned in the operations at Lublin. Auffenberg is a veteran of the Bosnian occupation of 1878, has served in important military capacities, performing notable service in the reorganization of military schools, and, in 1911, became Minister of War, in which post he was succeeded by General Krobatin in the following year.

Among the leaders that remain are, of course, first the Minister of War Krobatin. Alexander Krobatin has the rank of Field Marshal, and previously to his elevation to his present position had served as second in rank in the War Department. His particular military specialty is the artillery.

#### THE "KITCHENER" OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Next to the Minister of War, the man on whose shoulders falls the greatest burden of army organization is Baron von Hoetzendorf, Chief of the General Staff. The chief of the Austro-Hungarian General Staff is the outstanding figure and chief factor in the army organization of the Dual Empire. "General Conrad,"

as he is known, is the Kitchener of Austria-Hungary. He has the full confidence of the aged Emperor, as well as of the rank and file of the army. He possesses unique qualifications and capacity for military organization.

In von Hoetzendorf's hands lies the direction of the armies of Austria-Hungary. Born near Vienna, Baron von Hoetzendorf is sixty-two years old, and has rendered almost continuous service to the Empire since leaving the military academy at Hainburg. With a thorough theoretic education, he has also had experience in the campaigns in Bosnia, South Dalmatia, and elsewhere.

#### A MASTER TACTICIAN

General von Hoetzendorf has a wide reputation in the field of strategy, his books on this subject holding first rank in military literature. His most celebrated work on the fundamental principles of tactics has been accepted as a text-book by all the war academies of the world. Von Hoetzendorf was placed at the head of the Austro-Hungarian army in 1906 by the late Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the victim of the assassination in Sarajevo, who was his great admirer and intimate friend. How he resigned, several years later, becomes interesting now, in view of the



ARCHDUKE LEOPOLD SALVATOR  
(Expert in artillery service)

situation that has developed between the two Southern members of the Triple Alliance.

General Conrad, as the head of the General Staff, had demanded that a systematic line of fortifications be built on the Austro-Italian border. News of this was received in Italy with great excitement, the entire press interpreting it as a distrust of Italy's faith as an ally. Austro-Hungarian diplomacy sided with Italy. General Conrad's plan, however, received the strong support of the late Archduke Franz Ferdinand. But when the matter was put before the old Emperor, the late Minister of Foreign Affairs, Count Aehrenthal, was successful in his opposition, and the plan failed, whereupon General Conrad resigned. But in 1912 he was recalled to the post of Chief of Staff. The Emperor-King, who is himself a great admirer of General Conrad, has conferred on him the distinguished honor,—given, according to Hapsburg custom, only to royal personages,—of the office of Patron of the 39th Infantry Regiment. General Conrad's military genius is exhibited in an episode that occurred some years ago, when the notorious Redel, a Lieutenant-Colonel in the Austro-Hungarian General Staff, sold to Russia the entire mobilization system of Austria-Hungary. Such a system takes years to work out. But, within two years, General Conrad had created an entirely new system of mobilization.

#### THE ACTIVE ARCHDUKES

Closely associated with the Chief of Staff in the work of army mobilization and organization was the Archduke Friedrich, who has been attached to the army since 1871. He

was born at Gross-Seelowitz, and is in his fifty-ninth year. Friedrich's activities have been confined to the infantry branch, his principal service having been in the organization of the Austrian Landwehr, of which he has been chief since 1907.

Archduke Joseph Augustin, the son of the late Archduke Joseph (who, together with his entire family, was given the name of the "Palatinus Hungarian Hapsburgs" as a token of affection by the Hungarian people) owes it to his great popularity that he was placed at the head of an army, after the dismissal of various of the Austro-Hungarian generals. The young Archduke Joseph carefully cultivated his great popularity, which his father and grandfather (the last Hungarian Palatine) gained from the Hungarian people. At the present time the task of his army is to bear the brunt of the Russian attacks in the Carpathians, and,—as can easily be seen from the newspapers of Hungary,—the Hungarian troops surround this "Hungarian Hapsburg" with much enthusiasm. Archduke Jo-



ARCHDUKE EUGEN  
(The new commander of the Austro-Hungarian expedition against the Servians)

seph has already proved his bravery on more than one occasion. How he will succeed as a tactician and strategist is a secret for the future to reveal. While not famous for military talent, Archduke Joseph gained much of his popularity with the Hungarians by making his residence in Budapest. He is looked upon as a probability for the Hungarian throne, in the event of Hungary's emergence as a separate national entity.

#### EUGEN—NEW LEADER AGAINST THE SERBS

Selected to head the new invasion of Serbia, it is on the Archduke Eugen that the hopes



of Austria for recovering her lost laurels in this direction have been placed. Eugen,—general of cavalry, army inspector, and commander in Tyrol and Vorarlberg,—was born at Gross-Seelowitz in 1863. The Archduke is an extraordinarily cool and resolute man, well versed in the science of warfare and one of the ablest generals in the Austro-Hungarian army. One of his first moves in preparing for the Servian invasion,—according to report,—has been the banishing of the Servian contingent from his forces. There is a certain mystery about the personality of the Archduke Eugen. Another thing about him, peculiar as related to the Hapsburg dynasty, is that he is a bachelor. And a further peculiarity is that he actually has military talent. After a gay and boisterous life as a young man, Archduke Eugen took upon himself the duty of Grand Master of one of the sovereign Knightly Orders,—which the tradition respecting the Hapsburg dynasty nominally supports,—and led the required secluded life of the order. But his military talent has predestined him for a most difficult task, that of replacing the deposed General Potiorek in the southern war operations. Eugen is not so closely attached to his troops as is Joseph, but his widely esteemed knowledge of military science insures for him the confidence of the armies under his command:

#### THE MAN WHO HOLDS PRZEMYSL

One of the outstanding Austrian war heroes is General Hermann Rudolf Kusmanek, whose great distinction has come as the defender of Przemyśl. Kusmanek is a Bohemian and is another real military genius. For his heroic resistance in the defense of the great Austrian stronghold against repeated Russian onslaughts, General Kusmanek has been recognized with high honors by the Emperor Franz Joseph. Born in 1860, Kusmanek was educated at the Vienna Neustadt Military Academy, of which he later became an officer, and was subsequently attached to the General Staff.

Another soldier who has won distinction in Austria's battles against the Russians, and who remains in active service, is General

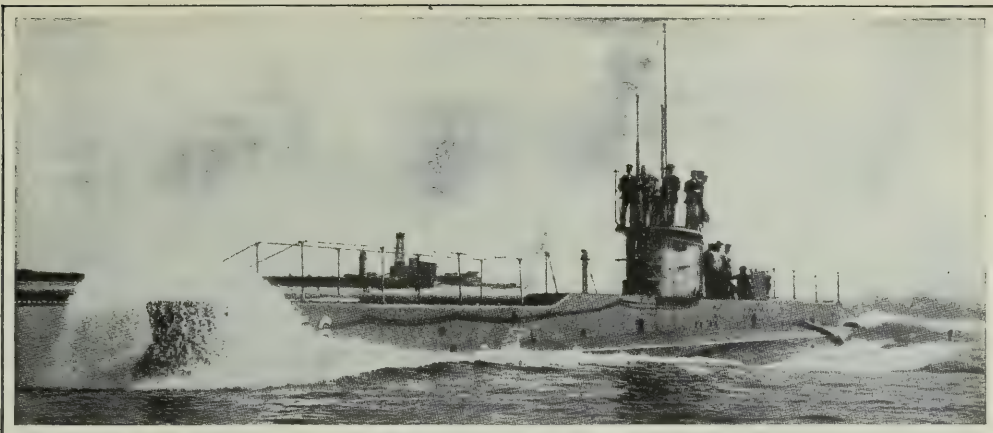
Victor Dankl, who led the forces at Krasnik in south Poland last August. Dankl is a general of cavalry, and was born in 1854. Attending the military Academy of Vienna-Neustadt, he began his army career as lieutenant of dragoons. After serving with the General Staff, he became Chief of Staff of a cavalry division, then chief of the General Staff of the 13th Corps, and later Chief of the Direction Bureau of the General Staff and Major-General commanding the 36th infantry division at Agram and Innsbruck. Dankl distinguished himself in the grand maneuvers of 1908, and in the present war operations has displayed conspicuous genius.

#### THE HEIR TO THE THRONE IS ALSO ACTIVE

The Heir Presumptive to the throne, Karl Franz Joseph, is also active in military affairs. The young Archduke has participated in the operations of the army since the opening of the war, and has also, on occasion, journeyed to the German Emperor's headquarters for conferences. It was he, according to report, who presided at the conference early in January on the question as to whether there should be a fresh offensive against Servia, and favored such an undertaking.

Besides these leaders mentioned, there are many able corps commanders who are serving with great distinction in the field, but whose names seldom appear in print. There is very little news, in fact, allowed to come out in the papers of Austria-Hungary now. The publication of anything but the barest statements contained in the official bulletins is severely discouraged. Reports of military operations, or of internal conditions in the Empire, are not easy to obtain. That there is a strong determination to recover lost laurels is, however, apparent. The decision to enter upon this new expedition into Servia, and the renewed resistance to Russian invasion, coupled with the accession of German forces and a change of commanders, show that Austria-Hungary has girded herself afresh and is bending every energy for a supreme effort to recover her lost prestige and to maintain the integrity of the Dual Empire.





BRITAIN'S LATEST SUBMARINE

(One of the "E" class—among the largest and most powerful under-water craft in the world)

# BATTLESHIP VS. SUBMARINE

## I.—THE SUBMARINE'S WEAPON— THE TORPEDO

*Will the German submarines be able to whittle down the British navy by successive attack until it is on a more even fighting level with the German Navy?*

*Admiral von Tirpitz, the head of the German Navy, is a strong believer in the efficacy of the submarine (as is also the noted naval expert of England, Admiral Sir Percy Scott), placing more reliance on this type of craft for a destructive campaign against England than on Zeppelins.*

*Von Tirpitz's recent suggestion for throwing a ring of these vessels about Great Britain lends increased interest to the subject of the submarine and its power.*

*The following description is prepared for our readers by a competent expert.—THE EDITOR.*

THE performances of both German and English submarines in the present war have lifted this class of sea fighters to a place of high importance. Certain eminent authorities, in fact,—like Admiral Sir Percy Scott, of England,—are of opinion that the submarine has sounded the death-knell of the dreadnoughts, and that to build more of these costly battleships is sheer waste of money. American naval experts, also, in the course of the Congressional inquiry into our national defenses last month, testified to the formidable character of this branch of naval warfare. To date submarines have done extremely effective work, well-nigh a round dozen war vessels,—English, German, Russian, and Turkish,—having so far succumbed to their attacks. Indeed, until last month's sea fights off the coast of South America the under-sea raiders had scored the highest total of definite results.

The sensational success of the submarine lends interest to the remarkable weapon with which it does its work of destruction,—the torpedo. The jackies dub it the "tin fish," and the "Percy Scott," after its ar-



dent supporter. The modern automobile torpedo is a cigar-shaped steel object, 22 feet long, 21 inches in diameter, and weighs 2000 pounds. With its wonderful mechanism of almost human intelligence, the projectile in action seems almost to throb with life. It dives like a porpoise, steers itself, and ploughs invisibly through the water at a

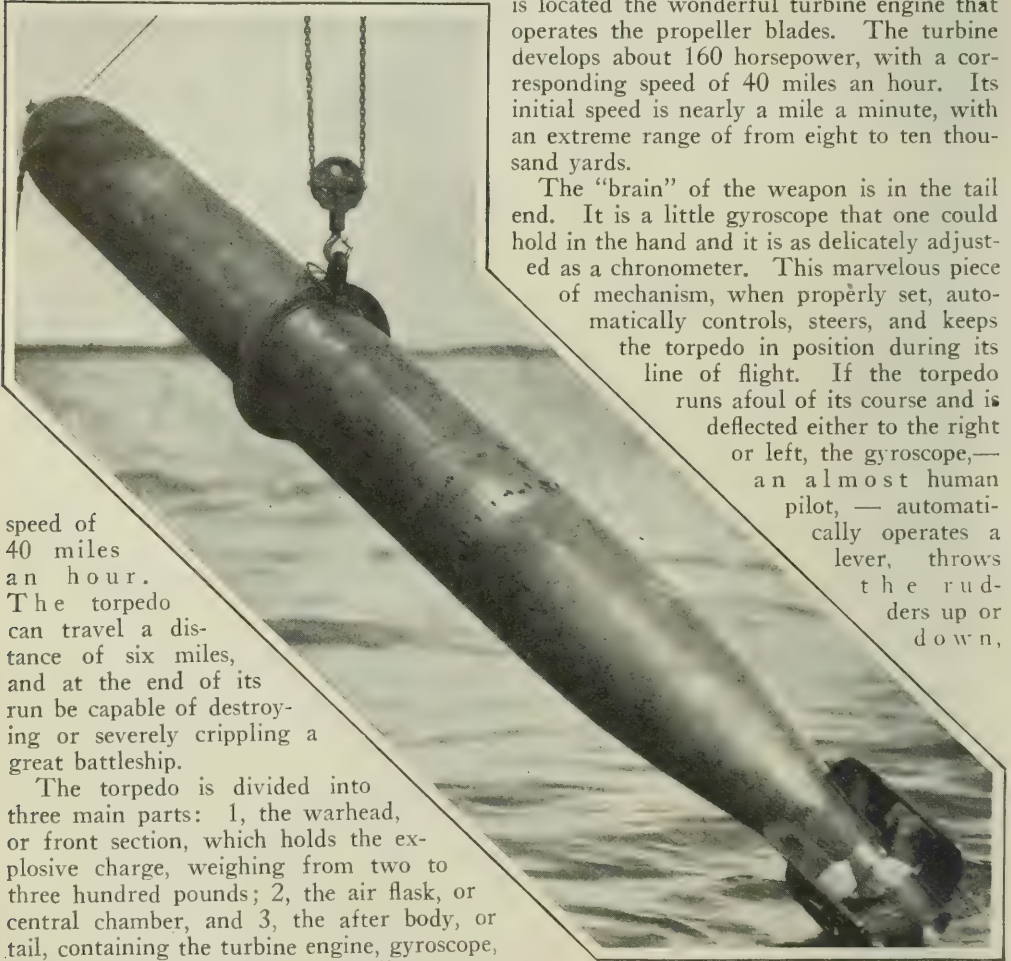
The central section, or air-flask, occupies more than one-half the total length of the torpedo. In this is stored the compressed air which, escaping through a valve leading to the tiny turbine engine, propels the weapon through the water. The air chamber is to the engine of the torpedo what the boiler is to the reciprocating engine of a steamship. Near the tail-end of the projectile is located the wonderful turbine engine that operates the propeller blades. The turbine develops about 160 horsepower, with a corresponding speed of 40 miles an hour. Its initial speed is nearly a mile a minute, with an extreme range of from eight to ten thousand yards.

The "brain" of the weapon is in the tail end. It is a little gyroscope that one could hold in the hand and it is as delicately adjusted as a chronometer. This marvelous piece of mechanism, when properly set, automatically controls, steers, and keeps the torpedo in position during its line of flight. If the torpedo runs afoul of its course and is deflected either to the right or left, the gyroscope,—an almost human pilot,—automatically operates a lever, throws the rudders up or down,

speed of 40 miles an hour. The torpedo can travel a distance of six miles, and at the end of its run be capable of destroying or severely crippling a great battleship.

The torpedo is divided into three main parts: 1, the warhead, or front section, which holds the explosive charge, weighing from two to three hundred pounds; 2, the air flask, or central chamber, and 3, the after body, or tail, containing the turbine engine, gyroscope, steering-gear, rudders, and propellers.

One of the most ingenious and vital parts of the whole mechanism is a small propeller for preventing the premature explosion of the torpedo. It is located at the extreme point, or "nose" of the warhead. It accomplishes this by locking the firing pin. When the torpedo enters the water on being fired from the submarine or destroyer, the revolutions of the propellers release a "sleeve" which uncovers the firing pin. This puts it in position to strike the detonating primer and explode the charge the instant the torpedo finds its mark.



A CLOSE VIEW OF A MODERN 21-INCH TORPEDO

(The extreme front is the war head, carrying 300 pounds of explosive; the center section is the compressed air chamber for operating the engine of the projectile during its run. The tail contains the turbine engine and mechanism for steering the torpedo while on its course)

and to the right or left, bringing the torpedo back to its proper path.

It takes almost a thousand pieces of steel, brass, and bronze to make up all the delicate, ingenious, and automatic adjustments of the interior mechanism of a modern torpedo.

The torpedo is fired from a tube about twenty feet long, located either in the body

of a submarine or on the deck of a destroyer. This tube is well greased inside, to enable the torpedo to slide out easily. Before pushing the shell home, the air chamber is filled with compressed air to drive the engine during the torpedo's run. An impulse charge of compressed air is also employed for launching the torpedo out of the tube. Promptly upon striking the water all the interior mechanism and automatic contrivances of the torpedo come to life. The turbine engine and the propellers start immediately, driving the torpedo at a swift pace straight towards the target. After dealing its blow, the missile disappears in its own ruin,—or, in case of a miss, its motor power gradually runs down, and the torpedo becomes a floating, dangerous mine.

The United States Navy is placing great importance upon these under-water weapons, and the latest type adopted for service is now being manufactured at the new government torpedo factory, at Newport, R. I. On board the U. S. S. *Montana*, Uncle Sam

conducts a school, equipped with modern torpedo installations. Here the rising generation of sea fighters is drilled in the science of torpedo warfare,—handling, aiming, and firing the shell, in the same manner as in actual warfare. The latest type of torpedo, shown in the accompanying illustration, with its thousand-odd complicated adjustments, requires one year to build and costs over \$6000.

So far, the warships destroyed by the torpedo have been mostly old vessels, not designed to withstand under-water torpedo attacks. The decisive test of the torpedo in modern warfare will come when it is launched against the recently constructed super-dreadnoughts, with all their protecting devices, such as double bottom, inner and outer skin, bulkheads, water-tight compartments, etc. A decisive trial of this character would throw much light on the question of the relative value of battleship and submarine, and would also, of course, vitally affect naval construction policies.

## II.—THE BATTLESHIP'S DEFENSE

*Can a battleship protect itself against submarine attack? Or is even the modern super-dreadnought, a floating fortress costing a round ten million dollars, and carrying a complement of a thousand human lives, doomed to submit to a deadly submarine stab, and settle down forthwith to a watery grave?*

*With the under-water craft and its weapon developed to the present degree of deadliness, the problem of protection for battleships against this form of attack is pressing and vital. We present in the following brief article an expert's views of the various methods at present available for protection against submarines.*—THE EDITOR.

THE events of the present war seem to prove that if a torpedo gets home, the warship that is struck is doomed. The loss of the armored cruisers *Aboukir*, *Cressy* and *Hogue*, built in 1900, and the battleship *Formidable*, completed about the same time, show that protection by elaborate subdivision below the water line does not protect. Or, rather, it proves that the system in vogue at the time those vessels were built is insufficient to withstand the heavy charges of high explosive which are carried in the warhead of the latest torpedoes.

The most modern weapons in our navy are charged with 300 pounds of explosive. The Germans, sacrificing air supply and engine power for explosive, use, in their submarine

service, a short-range, moderate-speed torpedo, carrying the enormous charge of 420 pounds. It is doubtful if the very latest dreadnought, in spite of its elaborate system of bulkheading and the provision of special torpedo-defense cofferdams or chambers, would survive the smashing and wrenching effect of the blow of one of these weapons.

### THE USE OF A TORPEDO NET

If internal protection is ineffective, or rather insufficient, what other means of defense external to the ship is available? The best-known of these is the torpedo-net, slung from booms and surrounding the ship at a distance sufficient to prevent the shock of explosion from injuring the hull. Theoretically



cally, the net is supposed to offer sufficient resistance to detonate the explosive charge; but of late years net-cutters, attached to the torpedo, have been developed, which have proved successful in breaching the net and permitting the torpedo to pass through unexploded. The net offers great obstruction when a ship is in motion; it is serviceable only when a fleet is at rest; and some navies, including our own, make no use of it.

#### MINES FOR DEFENSE WHILE IN HARBORS

The most effective protection for a fleet which, like that of Germany, has taken refuge in its harbors, is the mine-field laid in the approaches to the harbor and the provision of anchored booms of sufficient strength to prevent the passage of torpedo boats and destroyers. Frequently these booms have suspended below them heavy netting and interlacing cables, as a protection against the passage of submarines.

#### A PROTECTIVE SCREEN OF DESTROYERS

When a battleship fleet takes to the open its defense against torpedo attack is twofold. First, it is protected by a screen of destroyers, steaming in wedge-shaped formation in the van, and in parallel lines on each side of the battleship column. It is the duty of this screen to meet the destroyer attack of the enemy, sink or drive off his flotillas, and prevent them from getting within firing range of the main fleet. Should the enemy destroyers break through, reliance must be placed on the torpedo-defense batteries of the battleships, which consist of rapid-fire, 5 and 6-inch guns, capable of pouring upon the destroyers a perfect storm of high-explosive shells.

The present war has proved that a most

effective defense is the possession, by the ship attacked, of high-speed and quick-turning power. The course of a torpedo is plainly visible because of the white streak of air bubbles caused by the air exhaust from the torpedo engine.

#### QUICK MANEUVERING MOST EFFECTIVE

According to the testimony of eye witnesses on the ships engaged in the Heligoland fight, the fast battle-cruisers, scouts and destroyers engaged on the British side, thanks to their speeds of nearly thirty knots, were able to avoid the torpedoes by quick maneuvering.

And just here it should be mentioned that the same qualities of speed and maneuvering ability are proving to be the best protection against the submarine. Before the latter can launch its torpedo with accuracy it must bring its periscope above the surface to determine if the submarine is pointing true at the ship attacked. If the battleship is accompanied, as it should always be, by destroyers, and a keen lookout is kept, the chances of sighting the submarine are fairly good. If it should be sighted, the destroyer is headed, full speed, for the submarine in the attempt to ram it, and several of the submarine craft have been sunk or disabled in this way during the war.

#### ALSO, VISIBLE FROM AN AEROPLANE

Lastly, there is the aeroplane. Experiments have shown that submarines are visible from an aeroplane in clear and smooth water, even when they are submerged to depths of from fifty to one hundred feet. Here is a form of protection that may prove to be a complete answer to that invisibility which is the chief asset of submarine warfare.



Photograph by American Press Association

A TORPEDO NET BEING HAULED ABOARD A BATTLESHIP

# THE RED CROSS AT WORK

BY WINTHROP D. LANE

THOSE who have had the misfortune to be caught by flood, forest fire, or earthquake, may know at first hand what the Red Cross is and how it works in time of peace. But even for them its activities in war are mysterious and secret. What does it accomplish and how does it accomplish this? What is its relation to an actual battle, before, during, and after the fighting? What is its official status and how has it come into existence? For most people these questions remain unanswered.

In June, 1859, near the little village of Solferino, Italy, occurred the memorable battle of that name, in which the French and Sardinians were arrayed against the Austrians. The fighting raged over a wide reach of country and continued for sixteen hours; at its close 16,000 French and Sardinian soldiers and 20,000 Austrians lay dead or disabled on the field. The medical staff was wholly inadequate to care for the wounded. For days after the battle many of the dead remained unburied, and the wounded lay where they fell or crawled away as best they could for shelter and help.

A Swiss gentleman, Henri Dunant by name, happened to be traveling near that battlefield. Deeply impressed by the suffering he saw, he joined in the work of relief, and organized for the first time *corps of volunteers* to search for and nurse the wounded. But the inadequacy of this service and the consequent suffering of the wounded haunted him afterwards and impelled him to write a book recounting his experiences and asking: "Would it not be possible to establish in every country of Europe aid societies, whose aim would be to provide, during war, volunteer nurses for the wounded, without distinction of nationality?"

## THE TREATY OF GENEVA

The agitation of M. Dunant interested others and by the fall of 1863 sympathy with his views had been expressed by persons in so many countries that it was possible to call an international convention to answer his question. This convention met in Geneva in the autumn of the following year. It framed the Treaty of Geneva, sometimes called the "Red Cross Treaty," and imme-

diately secured the signatures of eleven governments to this document. Since then nearly every other country has subscribed.

The Treaty of Geneva did not create National Red Cross organizations. It was merely an agreement by the signing powers to recognize the neutrality of and extend certain immunities to all field hospitals, sanitary supplies, ambulances, surgeons, nurses, and attendants, wearing the sign of a red cross on a white field. This sign was chosen out of compliment to the Swiss republic, the colors of which are a white cross on a red ground. The treaty was revised by a second Geneva Convention in 1906.

## EACH NATION HAS ITS OWN ORGANIZATION

Under the encouragement afforded by this treaty, national Red Cross societies have since been formed independently in the countries signing the treaty. They have sprung up in various ways and are called by various names, though the words "Red Cross" appear in the titles of nearly all of them. The framers of the treaty foresaw that national differences would prevent a universal code of management and that each country would have to be left free to establish and regulate its own society in accordance with its own ideas and the spirit of its institutions.

Thus, the British Red Cross Society had its origin in "The National Society for Aid to Sick and Wounded in War," formed as a result of the suffering that occurred in the Franco-German war of 1870. In 1905 all the British associations concerned with the succor of sick and wounded soldiers were combined into the present organization. The Red Cross Society of Japan, one of the largest and most efficient, had its origin in the *Haku-ai-sha*, or Charity Association, founded during a civil war in 1877; by an imperial ordinance issued in December, 1901, it was "authorized to assist the sanitary service of the Army and the Navy within the limits fixed by the Ministers of the Army and of the Navy." The American National Red Cross was organized in 1881 as "The American National Association of the Red Cross," and was granted its present charter and name by Congress in 1905.

Red Cross societies first came into exist-



ence, it will be seen, as agencies to ameliorate the suffering of warfare. Most of them are now organized to alleviate suffering both in peace and war. Our own society has emphasized peace activities, but in this it differs from most European societies, which have tended rather to stress the military aspects of organization.

Each of the national societies formed as a result of the Treaty of Geneva is a voluntary agency, recognized by its own government and authorized to attach itself to the sanitary forces of the army in event of war. The Red Cross is thus additional to the regular military medical and nursing service. Each society is subject to the provisions of the 1906 Treaty of Geneva. Each adopts whatever methods seem to it best to prepare in time of peace for service in time of war. All conduct campaigns for money and aim to be ready with as effective hospital, nursing, and surgical service as possible. Most of the societies are membership organizations, membership amounting merely to the payment of stated dues.

There is no international Red Cross society. An International Red Cross Committee, with headquarters at Geneva, acts as a communicating agent of the national societies and studies methods of amelioration and relief, but it is not itself a relief agency. During the present war this committee has established a Prisoners' Bureau at Geneva, the purpose of which is to transmit information of the sick and wounded prisoners of all countries to their families. It also acts as a prisoners' post-office, a report in October declaring that 3000 letters were received daily.

#### IN WAR, SUBJECT TO MILITARY AUTHORITY

Let us now see what happens when two or more countries go to war. First, every belligerent must notify each of its enemies, if it has not already done so, of the names of the societies that are authorized to render assistance in the official medical service of its armies. The Red Cross is the chief, in some instances the only one, of these societies.

When this notification has been given, the personnel (nurses, surgeons, litter-bearers, etc.) and equipment of the Red Cross enter the field subject to military laws and regulations; that is, the Red Cross forces take orders from the military authorities. In so far as the conditions of modern warfare permit, they must be respected and protected by the enemy. If one of their number is accidentally shot in long-range fighting, this is looked upon as a matter that cannot be helped. But

if they fall into the hands of the enemy, they are not to be regarded as prisoners of war; in such a case, they may be compelled to continue in the exercise of their functions under the enemy's direction. While they remain in his power, he must grant them the same pay and allowances granted to persons of the same grade in his own army. When their assistance is no longer indispensable he must send them back to their own army or country in such manner as military necessity dictates, and he must permit them to take with them their private property. The protection due them from the enemy ceases if they commit acts injurious to him. They may, however, arm themselves and use arms in self-defense.

#### NURSES AND DOCTORS STATIONED IN HOSPITALS

For the most part, of course, the personnel of Red Cross societies do not get into actual fighting. They are stationed in hospitals, at fixed medical bases, or in the rear of the firing line. In the latter case, they go over the field after the battle and carry off the wounded. The Treaty of Geneva requires that after every engagement the belligerent who remains in possession of the field of battle shall search for the wounded and protect both wounded and dead from ill treatment, without distinction of nationality.

The Red Cross society of a neutral state can lend its services to a belligerent only with the prior consent of its own government and the authority of the belligerent, and the belligerent must then notify his enemies before making any use of such services. The American National Red Cross has made this offer to each of the countries now at war, and the offer has been accepted by all. The nurses and doctors sent from this country are being used exclusively, so far as is known, in hospitals.

The principles of the revised Treaty of Geneva were extended to maritime warfare by the Hague Convention in 1907. For the most part the agreement then signed secures the same protection and immunities to hospital ships that the prior agreement secured to official relief forces on land. In naval warfare the Red Cross can be of service chiefly by providing hospital ships, which aim to remain at a convenient distance from the scene of battle, and by caring for the sick and wounded when transferred to hospitals on land.

#### INADEQUACY OF THE SERVICE

The foregoing are the mandatory provisions of the "Red Cross Treaty" of 1906.

How far they are carried out must depend ultimately, of course, upon the willingness of belligerents and what is called "military necessity." Reports have reached us of ill treatment accorded those wearing the Red Cross badge in the present war, but of the authenticity of these it is impossible to judge.

One thing is certain, however, about the Red Cross societies now with the European armies. This is that they are totally inadequate to the task confronting them. Of this we have first-hand evidence. Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross, who has administered relief after some of the greatest disasters of modern times, entered the interior of Germany and France in September. When he returned he said to the writer:

None of the accounts reaching this country overstate the total inadequacy of all existing machinery for taking care of those who fall in battle. Try to estimate the task. Altogether 7,000,000 or 8,000,000 men are facing each other along 1000 miles of battlefield. The terrible effectiveness of modern weapons was never given so great a chance to show itself.

The plain truth is that over the thousands of square miles already battle-swept, countless thousands of men have been left wounded and helpless. No one knows the numbers,—no one can know. When I was in Berlin five trains left the city in one day, simply to get wounded and bring them back to the city. The number of daily trains increased after that. Berlin, Paris and London are literally filling up with wounded and sick soldiers. The public and private hospitals have been filled. Public buildings are being used to house them and many private homes are now being thrown open.

In the villages and countryside lie thousands of men who have not seen either doctor or nurse. Some of them crawl into peasants' houses, but no one knows how many are lying under hay stacks, in the lee of cattle-sheds, or beneath the glare of the sun, and the drive of the rain in ditches and along the roadside. It is there that the great humanitarian work of this war must be done.

Now to meet this unprecedented call no human prearrangements could have been adequate. The Red Cross societies in Europe are thoroughly efficient and are organized primarily for war relief. But they cannot meet the present crisis. They simply cannot get doctors and nurses enough.

They are trying hard. The British Red Cross Society accepted 500 members of the Salvation Army at one time simply to go to the front in Belgium and France as litter-bearers, orderlies, attendants, etc. The German society has accepted the services of hundreds of Catholic sisters to act as nurses.

Hopeless as the situation appears, something can be done about it. There are enough nurses and doctors in the world, willing to go to the scene of need, to help thousands of these poor fellows not now receiving help. The problem is to get them there. It costs money. The forces of mercy have got to be mobilized as effectively as the forces of destruction. The fighting nations cannot do it adequately and promptly. It is in large measure up to the non-fighting countries of the world. It is up to America. The American Red Cross, which has already sent 138 nurses and 30 doctors, could send every one of its 5000 enrolled nurses and not exceed the need.

This was the condition five months ago. By early January the American Red Cross had been able to bring the number of its nurses up to 150 and of its doctors up to 45! It had also sent a considerable quantity of medical and nursing supplies.



Photograph by American Press Association

GERMAN RED CROSS GATHERING THE WOUNDED AND DEAD ON THE FIELD AT PERONNE





THE EARTHQUAKE ZONE OF JANUARY 13, 1915  
(The devastated area is shown in light shading)

# THE SETTING OF THE RECENT ITALIAN EARTHQUAKE

BY JOHN L. RICH

(Department of Geology, University of Illinois)

**T**HROUGHOUT historic times Italy has been visited again and again by earthquakes of the most destructive kind. These disturbances have occurred now in one part of the country, now in another. Scarcely a single locality is entirely free from them, though some parts have suffered much less than others. Among the areas most frequently shaken are the "toe" of Italy, Calabria, and the entire Apennine range.

On the accompanying map the area devastated by the earthquake of January 13, 1915, is shown in detail.

The center of the disturbance, round the basin of the former Lake Fucino, together with practically the entire region from which severe damage has been reported, is included within the area, roughly forty miles long by twenty miles wide, covered by the map. A few towns outside this area are mentioned as having been damaged more or less, but evidently no more than should be expected

from their proximity to the seat of disturbance. The earthquake district lies in the very heart of the Apennine Mountains, fifty miles due east of Rome. For the most part it is exceedingly rough. The mountains rise to elevations of 6000 to 8000 feet, while the valley bottoms lie at about 2100 feet. The slopes are very steep and rocky and, in most places, the valleys are deep and narrow.

## EARTH MOVEMENTS IN A SUNKEN AREA

A notable exception to this condition is found in the neighborhood of the basin of Lake Fucino, where the topographic features are so abnormal that they arrest the attention at once. A glance at the map will show that the lake lay in the center of a nearly level plain, roughly twelve miles long by eight miles wide, set down, as it were, into the midst of one of the most rugged parts of the Apennines.

The rectilinear outlines of this sunken

area, cutting as they do across the trend of the mountains, seem to indicate clearly that at some earlier time a block of the mountains has dropped down to form the basin of the lake. Other evidences, too, such as the very presence of so large an undrained depression as the old lake basin, and the occurrence of similar though smaller marshy lowlands to the northwest and west, go to show that comparatively recent movements of the earth's crust have taken place in the vicinity and have interfered seriously with drainage.

It is significant that the place of origin of the recent earthquake should have been within or immediately around this sunken area. This coincidence, taken in connection with the fact that the immediate region is not volcanic, leaves little doubt in the mind of the geologist that further earth movements of the same sort as those which produced the lake basin were responsible for the recent earthquake.

#### "FAULTING" OF THE EARTH'S CRUST

It is a well-known fact that the majority of the severest earthquakes are produced by such movements and readjustments of the outer shell of the earth. The process, known to geologists as *faulting*, is as follows: Owing to various subterranean causes, the solid crust of the earth is put under stress. The stresses keep growing greater until finally they reach the breaking-point of the rocks. These yield suddenly and move over one another along the line of fracture until the strain is relieved. This breaking of the rocks, sometimes along lines hundreds of miles in length, and the movement of the broken parts over one another, set up jars or vibrations which, traveling outward in all directions through the rocks, constitute an earthquake. The severity of the shock at any point on the earth's surface depends upon the character and extent of the break, the amount of movement, and the distance of the point from the place of origin of the disturbance.

Earthquakes also occur frequently in connection with volcanic eruptions, but these are likely to be more local in character and, on the whole, less severe than those due to faulting.

#### SHOCKS MORE SEVERE ON ALLUVIAL LANDS

Earthquake vibrations as they travel through solid rock are, as a rule, not of great magnitude, but as they pass from rock into loose formations such as sand, gravel, or alluvium, especially if it is wet, their size

(amplitude) increases many fold while their frequency diminishes. The loose earth is shaken together and often thrown into distinct waves, much as a plate of jelly might be. As a result of this, earthquake shocks are apt to be much more destructive to buildings founded upon such loose formations than to those which rest upon solid rock. The significance of this principle will appear when we consider the situations of certain of the villages and cities most damaged by the recent earthquake.

Although newspaper accounts are somewhat conflicting and uncertain, there is sufficient agreement to make it clear that practically every town located round the borders of the basin of Lake Fucino was either destroyed or badly damaged; that a similar fate overtook those on the lowland northwest of the lake basin at least to and beyond Magliano dei Marsi; and that nearly all the villages in the valley of Liri River for a distance of thirty miles between Tagliacozzo and Sora were badly damaged and some of them destroyed. Sora, a good-sized city situated upon an alluvial plain where Liri River emerges from the mountains, also suffered severely.

From the meager reports which have come to this country it is impossible to determine the exact locations of the faults along which the crustal movements took place, but enough has come through to indicate that there were at least two lines of movement, one along the sharp, straight mountain ridge just west of Avezzano, and the other along the west side of the Liri valley. The reports say that "the terrific force of the earthquake cracked the mountains near Luco (Lucco?)," and "Mount Pizzodetta between Balsorano and Roccacerro was cut in two by an immense fissure which is visible at a great distance." These are evidently the surface traces of the faults which caused the catastrophe.

It is significant that most of the larger towns in the region are located upon soft alluvial formations: Avezzano, San Benedetto, Ortucchio, and apparently Cappelle and Magliano dei Marsi are all founded upon the alluvial deposits which floor the basin of Lake Fucino and its northwestern continuation; Sora lies on an alluvial plain in a small basin traversed by Liri River just after it emerges from the mountains. Without doubt the severity of the earthquake shocks in all these cities was greater than it would have been had they not been located upon alluvial lands.



## PEOPLE CROWDED IN BADLY BUILT HOUSES

A large number of the smaller towns which were damaged are mere mountain hamlets which shelter the agricultural and pastoral population of these rough lands. The custom, prevalent over large parts of Europe, for the peasantry to live in small villages rather than in scattered farmhouses doubtless explains the great number of fatalities in country districts, for the tendency in the villages is always toward building larger houses and crowding more people into each than would be the case if scattered houses were the custom.

Another factor which has always been directly responsible for the enormous number of fatalities in the Italian earthquakes is the prevailing custom of building the dwellings several stories high and constructing them of rubble held together by inferior cement with the sidewalls improperly tied together. Such structures, in a region where earthquakes are frequent, are veritable dead-falls. All reports indicate that this factor played its usual conspicuous part in causing the enormous loss of life in the Avezzano earthquake. In this connection it is significant that in the city of Avezzano the few modern buildings of structural steel and concrete are reported to have withstood the

shock, while the prevailing structures of brick and rubble collapsed utterly.

The recent earthquake had much in common with that which destroyed Messina and Reggio in 1908. Earth movements in connection with faulting were the cause of both. In the case of Messina the movement took place along one or more of the great faults which pass through the Strait of Messina, and it was along the strait that the greatest damage was done. Both Messina and Reggio are located upon alluvial deposits and suffered much more than neighboring villages founded upon rock. Finally, the character of the buildings at Messina, as in the region recently devastated, was the greatest single factor in causing loss of life. Omori, the noted Japanese seismologist, after studying the Messina disaster, estimated that 998 out of every 1000 who perished in Messina were victims of poor construction of houses.

The only safety in regions where the earth is as unstable as in the Apennines, lies in following the practise of the Japanese and constructing buildings which either will not shake down easily or are so light that they do comparatively little damage when they fall. In a country like Italy, where timber is relatively scarce, such precautions, except in the larger cities, are beset with great practical difficulties.



RUINS OF AVEZZANO

# FINDING BETTER SEEDS FOR THE WORLD'S FOOD SUPPLY

BY B. E. POWELL

(University of Illinois)

[Never before the opening of the present season has there been such intense interest in the yield of food crops, and the whole world will be observing anxiously the question of cereal surpluses in the United States, the climatic conditions under which the great Canadian wheat crop will this year be produced, and, above all, the success of Germany in the national supervision of the agricultural season of 1915. The authorities in the United States, Canada, and Germany have been giving great attention to prolific and valuable seeds, both of cereals and other food crops.—THE EDITOR.]

IT is conceded, in theory at least, that to be well-born is a right. It is known that to be nicely hatched—from the ancestral standpoint—is distinct cause for congratulation. We are now discovering that to give the plants the best available grandfathers is the part of wisdom. Just what are the fundamental laws of inheritance that make for the best products is known only to a limited extent. However, "like produces like" with sufficient frequency to make it profitable to seize upon a noteworthy individual when one appears in the field. And there is no subject to which the mind of man attaches itself more eagerly than this very subject of inheritance.

Therefore, all over the land scientists are engaged in tying little paper bags over sweetpeas and other blossoms, that no outside pollen may come a-lovemaking and destroy the purity of their cherished strains. It is hoped that underlying laws of inheritance, applicable throughout the plant and animal worlds, may be found. Then, as an instance of what will be possible, an apple with a rosy skin and a Grimes Golden flavor may be produced at the will of the breeder. For the rosy apple has the appeal to sentiment that opens the purse, while the Grimes Golden flavor has the appeal to the palate that brings the purchaser back to the same market.

Many interesting examples of the overcoming of unfavorable environment, of curing bad habits in the plant kingdom, of increasing the yields by attention to ancestors, and of breeding for a particular content, may be cited. Also plant breeders are forming interesting theories of inheritance that may prove right, partly right, or entirely wrong when full knowledge perches upon the banner of application. But right or wrong, they are the result of honest endeavor and worthy of respectful consideration.



SHOWING HEREDITARY POWER TO RESIST ALKALI

(Third generation of resistant plants compared with ordinary plants growing in same soil)

## A WHEAT THAT THRIVES IN ALKALI

An interesting example of overcoming unfavorable environment comes from Illinois. Under the direction of Dr. L. H. Smith, of the Illinois Agricultural Experiment Station, investigations were carried on that resulted in finding a kind of wheat that would grow in alkaline soils. It had been supposed that wheat would not grow in alkaline soils; and as people who live upon alkaline soils are quite as fond of bread as these who do not, it was distinctly inconvenient.

The experiments were made with an ordinary variety of wheat known as Minnesota 169. In most of the pots that were given strong doses of the alkali the wheat refused to grow, or sent up sickly spindling plants





TWO PURE STRAINS OF TURKEY RED WHEAT AFTER A HEAVY WIND SHOWING THE DIFFERENCE IN LODGING (NEBRASKA EXPERIMENT STATION)

that were a disgrace to the whole wheat family. But the kernel in one pot was undaunted by the alkali. It grew strong, thrifty, full of promise. Its offspring inherited the same power and handed it down through the generations. Literally the enemy had been routed on his own soil.

#### A WHEAT THAT WILL NOT LODGE

Again, certain habits of grain that are destructive of profits have been overcome. Professor C. G. Williams, of the Ohio Experiment Station, noticed that the farmers of the State were losers to a large extent each year through the tendency of the wheat to lodge. He did not therefore say, as the old lady did of the rain that spoiled her "praties": "There's no sinse in it—it's jist the will of God." No, he squared his jaw and polished up the tools in his laboratory.

"Somewhere," he thought, "in the kingdom of Unembodied Ideas is a wheat that will not lodge."

And he did not cease his labors until he had given that idea a body. He developed wheat with so much backbone that it refused to be felled by anything it was likely to meet.

#### AN INCREASED PRODUCT

Again, greater productiveness has been bred into the seeds. The Nebraska Experiment Station, after preaching soil salvation until there no longer was an excuse for the farmer not understanding the necessities of the soil, began to take thought upon other means of service.

"Let's increase the wheat yield," was suggested.

It was a case of first suggestion, then experimentation, next, celebration. By selecting individual heads of the Turkey Red variety of wheat and planting in short rows, the best strains were saved each year for three years. Then these best strains were sown upon field-plats of one-thirtieth of an acre each, and were tested there from three to five years before being distributed among the farmers of the State. What were the results?

They were truly astonishing. From the improved strains an increase of four bushels to the acre was obtained over whatever strain of Turkey Red the farmers of that locality were using. The average yield from eight-acre fields of twenty-one farmers was 21.9 bushels for the local Turkey Red and 25.9 bushels for the improved Turkey Red. There are some 2,000,000 or more acres of wheat lands in the State of Nebraska alone. Just think of how many automobiles could honk over the roads as a result of a four-bushel increase upon those acres!

#### BETTER SEED-SELECTION METHODS

To what does all this point—these facts which prove that the painstaking application of intelligence can actually add to the wheat yield, can eradicate bad habits in the growing wheat, as in growing children; can overcome unfavorable environment? Merely that the scoop-shovel as a method of wheat-seed selection has had its day. Other uses must be found for the scoop-shovel. For a long time



TURKEY RED WHEAT ON ILLINOIS EXPERIMENT FIELD, URBANA

(These shocks represent the yields of wheat in 1912 on one of the breeding plots of the University of Illinois. Two strains which have been multiplied from selected individual plants are shown in comparison with the original variety, Turkey Red. For example, the selected strain on the extreme left produced 25.2 bushels per acre, while the original Turkey Red produced 8.3 bushels only; the second selected strain on the right produced 29.5 bushels. Apparently it pays to select and breed the seed with care)

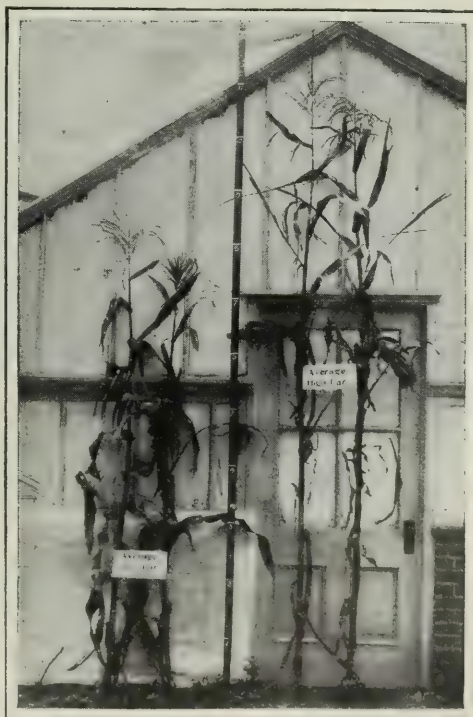
farmers have been buying their seed-corn in the ear, although it would probably startle a community to find one who bought his wheat seed in the head. But the future has that very farmer in its grip, although he may be shaking a rattle right now. The scoop-shovel in the selection of wheat seed must go—behold, it is the cheat of the harvest, the ally of the poorhouse!

Older countries, where density of population has crowded inefficiency hard against the bread-line, have found this out. According to a recent report, Germany has forty-six breeders of rye, eighty-four breeders of wheat, sixty-four breeders of barley, and fifty-three breeders of oats. Now that the price of land in the United States is so high, the farmer must get the most possible from it or conduct a losing business. And it is not enough to reverence the soil by returning the phosphorus, nitrogen, and potassium removed by the crop; nor to add to this an intelligent observation of crop rotation; the seeds, no matter how small, must be selected with painstaking knowledge. And when a notable individual appears in the field, its destination must not be the elevator; it must be destined to become an ancestor.

Nor is it enough to consider the harvest merely. "First the blade, then the leaf, then the full grain in the ear," might be amended to read: "First the blade, then the leaf, then the full grain in the ear, and last the loaf upon the table."

From North Dakota comes a study of the "phosphorus content of bread and of wheat flour; and its relation to the baking qualities

of the flour." It was found that the higher the phosphorus content the larger and finer the loaf. As phosphorus is excellent for the body, let the phosphorus of the loaf be taken into account at seed-time. Similar things have been done in the cornfield.



BREEDING HAS PLACED THE EARS ON THE STALKS TO THE RIGHT TWICE AS HIGH AS THOSE ON THE STALKS TO THE LEFT





#### INCOME-PRODUCERS

(Each cow of this group gave on the average an eight-gallon can of milk per day for a week. This milk was sold at 10 cents a quart, the income from each cow being \$3.20 per day, or \$16 for the five cows. The total receipts from the five cows for a week came to \$112)

## UNCLE SAM'S THREE HERDS OF DAIRY CATTLE

ONE A HERD OF PAUPERS—ANOTHER COMMONPLACE—THE THIRD THE  
STRENGTH OF THE DAIRY INDUSTRY

BY WILBER J. FRASER

(Professor of Dairy Farming, University of Illinois)

UNCLE SAM,—that is to say, that part of the American population that farms,—keeps three immense herds of dairy cows; each herd contains seven million head and occupies a farm the size of the State of Illinois! One of these herds lacks \$50,000,000 annually of paying for its keep. Another of equal size makes a moderate profit of \$7.85 per cow, but the third herd of 7,000,000 high producing cows makes the splendid, but not extraordinary, profit of \$26.82 per head, or \$187,000,000 annually.

This is not a mere guess, but is based upon facts secured by the Department of Dairy Husbandry of the University of Illinois from a large and fair comparison of the individual yearly records of over 1000 cows in herds, tested by this department, in the different parts of the State.

Investigations were not made to show that there is a difference in the producing power

of individual dairy cows, as this has been known for a long time, but were made to show how wide and far-reaching this variation is and something of its meaning to the dairy industry of the United States.

The poorest third of these cows produced an average of 3654 pounds of milk and 134 pounds butterfat annually, each cow lacking \$7.25 of paying for her keep. The middle third averaged 5000 pounds of milk and 198 pounds of butterfat annually, returning an average profit of \$7.85; and the best third averaged 6765 pounds of milk and 278 pounds of butterfat, each cow making an annual profit of \$26.82, besides paying market price for all items included in her keep.

As these cows were in commercial dairy herds in four different sections of Illinois, it is justifiable to assume that they are fair representatives of Uncle Sam's cows. According to the last census, the average production of the cows in the United States was

140 pounds butterfat, while the average production of the 1000 cows tested in Illinois was 203 pounds, therefore, the figures here given do not exaggerate the actual conditions and are conservative.

Using the above figures as a basis for Uncle Sam's herds, the following noteworthy facts are brought out:

Since each of the three herds contains over 7,000,000 cows, or more than 230,000 herds of 30 cows each, it will require 230,000 farms containing 160 acres each (a quarter section being required to successfully handle a herd of 30 cows), together with all the buildings, horses, tools, equipment and labor, necessary for one of the three herds. These farms aggregate 36,800,000 acres, or 57,500 square miles, equal to an immense farm the size of the State of Illinois.

#### THE FIRST A POOR FARM HERD SQUANDERING \$50,000,000

Some place in the United States, then, more than the agricultural producing capacity of the whole fertile State of Illinois is being used to support the herd of 7,000,000 poor cows, each one of which is producing only 134 pounds of butterfat per year and lacks \$7.25 of paying for her board and keep, or an aggregate loss of \$50,000,000 each year for the privilege of milking this poor herd.

But the dairymen who read this article will say that this \$50,000,000 cannot be an actual loss. This criticism does not alter the fact that somewhere in the United States, the members of this poor herd actually exist to-day. Because these poor cows are scattered, and some of them are in nearly every herd, where the profit from the good cows covers up the loss on the poor ones, does not lessen the tremendous waste one whit.

#### THE SECOND HERD, THE PAUPERS' SUPPORT

Uncle Sam's second herd of 7,000,000 cows requires exactly the same equipment in every respect as regards land, buildings, labor, etc., the cows producing a yearly average of 5000 pounds of milk, 198 pounds of butterfat, and making an annual profit of \$7.85 each. This herd is a most decided improvement on the first, as the cows in it earn



A BREAD-WINNER AND A MORTGAGE-LIFTER

annually an average of \$15.10 more than those in the first herd. Even in this better herd a man must milk a cow eighty-two times, or more than a month, to make a profit of one dollar.

Since all but 60 cents of the gain on each cow in the second herd is taken to make up the loss on each cow in the first, the combined efforts of two cows, one from each of these herds, would earn 60 cents, or 30 cents each annually. In other words, dairymen are housing, caring for, and milking the lower two-thirds of the cows in the United States to make an average profit of only 1/10 of a cent per day on each cow. Each of the 14,000,000 cows in these two herds has to be kept ten days to make one cent profit, or fifty days (nearly two months) and milked one hundred times before the net profit will be great enough to buy a nickel cigar or pay a five-cent street-car fare. A man milking a herd of 50 cows like the lower two-thirds of all the cows would make a profit of five cents every day he had the courage to hang to this business.

Think of the 14,000,000 cows being milked each day in the United States that never did anything to help advance the farm, and never can or will. They are eating up the produce of an area of land equal in producing capacity to twice that of the fertile State of Illinois, and using up all the mental and physical labor of 1,400,000 men devoting their energy to farming this land and milking these 14,000,000 cows simply to pay interest on the investment and ordinary laborer's wages, with nothing left for profit. If a man houses, cares for, milks and raises the crops to feed a cow a year for 30 cents profit, he is surely in small business. He could not be called a Napoleon of finance,



nor a captain of industry, according to the common usage of these terms.

#### THE THIRD HERD, THE STRENGTH OF THE DAIRY INDUSTRY

Uncle Sam's third herd is composed of 7,000,000 cows, requiring only the same amount of land, buildings, equipment, and labor, but producing on the average 6765 pounds of milk and 278 pounds of butterfat annually, paying for housing, ordinary laborer's wages for all work put upon them, market price for all feed consumed, and leaving a clear profit of \$26.82 each as remuneration for the intelligence put into the business of producing and caring for such cows.

It is this herd that is the life of the dairy industry. If it were not for these profit-making cows, dairy products would be far higher in price or dairymen would have become discouraged and quit milking cows long ago, which would have cut off the milk supply from mankind. This herd, instead of losing \$50,000,000 annually as the poor herd does, makes an actual profit of \$187,000,000.

A dairyman keeping thirty cows that are but the equal of these will receive interest on his investment in land and farm equipment, pay for all labor put upon the farm and herd, and, in addition, receive the neat little sum of \$805 as clear profit for the brain work put into the business. In other words, he will receive one and one-half times as much actual cash for his brain work as for his manual labor at farm laborers' wages, and this is not by any means the maximum of what dairymen have actually accomplished. Thus, were reasonably good methods employed on the dairy farms, Uncle Sam might be making one and a half million dollars profit daily from his dairy business instead of one-half a million, or a difference of a million dollars a day.

It has been said that the lack of correct agricultural methods is one of the reasons for the high cost of living. If this be true, then dairying, being one phase of agriculture, comes in for its share of responsibility in the matter. One is asked, "Is there any help for this tremendous loss?" and that this can be answered in the affirmative is one of the encouraging features. The remedy is not difficult or complicated. It consists principally of the following: getting rid of the poor cows, filling their places with heifers from the best cows and good, pure-bred sires, and, last but not least, good crops, feed and care.

#### REMEDY NO. 1

The first step necessary then to make a dairy herd more profitable is to rid it of the lowest producing cows. No matter whether we believe it or not, the vital question of good and poor cows is a living issue confronting every dairyman all the time, and he cannot get away from it.

There is not a single county, nor even a township, in any State which has yet come anywhere near reaching the maximum possibilities of milk production. The pity of it is that the dairymen and their families caring for these worthless cows are kept so busy with the drudgery of preparing the soil; planting, cultivating and harvesting the crops; housing, feeding, caring for and milking the cows, that they do not have time to pause and consider where this drudgery is leading them. They are struggling with a losing game and after all this hard work is done, the path they are traveling can only lead to financial ruin. This has been the actual experience of many men keeping poor cows. Such a waste of energy is appalling.

If a dairy cow, kept under average farm conditions, does not produce 4000 pounds of milk and 160 pounds of butterfat each year, the dairyman caring for her is losing money every year she is kept, and yet cows producing this amount of milk or less are bred on from generation to generation. When we consider how easy it is to apply the dairyman's yardstick, the scales and Babcock test, to every dairy herd and then realize that less than one per cent. of the two million dairymen in the United States are using this yardstick to-day, it is not to be wondered at that such conditions as those mentioned above continue to exist.

Every dairyman should keep a record of the production of each individual cow and those producing less than the above mentioned amounts of milk and fat should be sold at once. Each dairyman should set a minimum standard of production, which should be raised from year to year, and should replace all cows not coming up to this with better producers. Better cows would increase the amount, and reduce the cost of production so that by receiving even the same price for the product, the dairymen would soon be on the road to prosperity. The value of such tests is shown by the following:

One herd of dairy cows tested produced an average of 5800 pounds of milk and 224

pounds of butterfat the first year. This herd was making an average profit of \$16.60 before they were tested. After four years of testing and weeding out of the poor cows, the average production was 8628 pounds of milk and 324 pounds of butterfat, making an increase of 2828 pounds of milk and 100 pounds of butterfat, the average profit being \$40.52, or an increased profit of \$23.42 per cow.

#### REMEDY NO. 2

Raising the heifer calves from the best cows is essential to good dairying, but if the dairyman wishes to be most successful in building up his future herd, this cannot be accomplished unless a good, pure-bred sire is used. An inspection of dairy herds will show that many times comparatively little attention is paid to the quality of the bull. Like produces like with dairy cattle the same as in all other animals. If a man has a herd of star-boarder cows and continues to use a scrub sire, as many still persist in doing, he cannot hope to improve the herd or succeed financially.

The initial cost of a pure-bred sire may seem great, but it must be remembered that he represents one-half of all the qualities, characteristics, capacity for milk production, and everything transmitted to the calves which are to constitute the succeeding herd.

The pure-bred sire is certain to transmit more of his characteristics to the offspring than will grade cows, and no more economical investment can be made by a dairyman than to spend time and money in obtaining the best one possible. Frequently the penny is held so close to the eye that it is impossible to see the dollar a little farther off, and this is just what a man is doing who has a dairy herd and thinks he is economizing by buying a poor or even ordinary sire. One may have reason to say that he cannot afford to pay a big price for a fine cow, but the same argument does not apply to the purchase of an improved bull, because the sire's influence spreads farther and faster than the cow's.

From generation to generation the succession of well-selected sires goes on increasing and intensifying the improvement in the offspring of common cows until within a few years they have practically transformed the whole herd at slight expense and more than doubled its profit.

Every man who has had any experience in the use of a good, pure-bred sire from high-producing dams will agree that he was of peculiar value and great economy in building up the dairy herd and that the investment paid, and that most liberally. The evidence is seen in contrasting heifers from good, pure-bred sires with heifers lacking such percentage, and in the increase of the milk production.

The average production in six dairy herds that have been tested was 175 pounds of butterfat each year where no attention had been



PUTTING CORN INTO THE SILO TO FURNISH A PALATABLE AND SUCCULENT RATION FOR WINTER

paid to grading up the herds by the use of pure-bred sires, while, in the same locality, six other herds, in which pure-bred sires had been used, averaged 265 pounds of butterfat per year. The cows in the ungraded herds averaged \$3.40 profit per year, while the cows in the graded herds averaged \$24.80 profit. Such a difference in profit is sufficient evidence of the value of a good, pure-bred sire. On this basis a herd of forty cows from good sires will return an actual profit every year of \$856 more than a herd with which scrub sires have been used.

Ridding the herds of the poor cows, and using a pure-bred sire, presupposes raising heifer calves from the best cows. But many dairymen say, "This is too expensive." The writer has proved by actual feeding trials that \$3.50 worth of whole and skim milk will successfully feed a dairy calf until it is able to digest a grain ration and thrive without milk. In the face of such a fact, no right-minded dairyman can say that the cost of the milk required to raise a good heifer is too great.

There are four reasons why the dairyman





A GOOD SIRE—THE BEST INVESTMENT THE DAIRYMAN CAN MAKE

should raise the heifer calves from the best cows:

First, from the dairy cow as from no other animal, an absolute and complete record of performance can be secured upon which to base the selection.

Second, the dairyman knows the percentage.

Third, the dairy cow is largely made or unmade the first year of her life, and by feeding the calves properly the dairyman is able to develop them to their greatest capacity and secure cows of more efficiency.

Fourth, by replenishing the herd with home-grown heifers, the dreaded diseases, contagious abortion and tuberculosis, may be largely eliminated.

#### REMEDY NO. 3

After dairymen have rid their herds of the poor cows, purchased good, pure-bred sires, and started raising the heifer calves from the best individuals, there is still another essential,—feed,—to be considered if the greatest profit is to be obtained. If a large portion of it is purchased as has frequently been the custom in the past, the profits will be greatly reduced and in many cases entirely eaten up, and thus the time spent in breeding up the herds will be practically lost. Crops must be grown, the combination of which not only increases the milk production, when fed to dairy cows in proper proportions, but soil values as well.

There is as great a difference in the amounts of food value per acre produced by different crops as there is in the milk-producing capacity of different cows. An ordi-

narily good crop of corn put into the silo or a good crop of alfalfa hay will furnish more than three times as much food value to the acre as will a crop of oats or timothy hay, and nearly five times as much as blue grass pasture. This means, then, that if a man wants to practise intensive dairy farming, he must reduce the areas of the crops producing a low amount of food value per acre and grow as much corn and alfalfa as is practicable. Where alfalfa cannot be successfully grown, cow peas and soja beans may take the place of it, as they contain nearly as much

protein. By using corn, corn silage, and alfalfa hay, the cows are not only furnished an economical, but a palatable, ration and with these two crops no concentrates need be purchased excepting for cows giving large yields of milk.

At the end of a few years the dairymen conducting their business on this basis will find the profits derived therefrom are handsome returns for all investment.

#### THE POSSIBILITIES

Where the foregoing remedies have been applied, dairymen have shown the possibilities of rightly conducted dairying by more than doubling the production of their herds and increasing the profit many fold. Some herds tested have been graded up to average over 9000 pounds of milk and 324 pounds of butterfat, making a profit of \$42.00 per cow, which is to say, that with a herd of fifty cows, besides paying for all labor and operating expenses of the farm, and the profit on the crops which he would have received had he been a grain farmer, the dairyman would have made an additional \$2100 as net profit from his dairy herd.

One herd tested produced an average of 397 pounds of butterfat per cow a year, each earning \$56 above the cost of keep. The entire herd of fifty-seven cows made the profit of \$3200 for the year.

Each of the five cows pictured at the head of this article produced an eight-gallon can of milk per day for a week. The milk from these cows would have brought, at that time, on the wholesale market, \$2 per hundred pounds, or \$1.37 for each cow per day.

For the five cows the returns would have been \$6.85 per day, or an income of \$47.95 for the week. Sold as it was at 10 cents per quart, the receipts from each cow were \$3.20 per day or \$16 for the five cows, the extraordinary income of \$112 for the week. In some poor herds, the daily production of *ten* cows is not sufficient to fill a milk can of this size.

In order that the possibilities in economic milk production might be made more evident, the Department of Dairy Husbandry started a twenty-acre dairy demonstration, and produced during the past six years an average of 3979 pounds of milk per acre. This is practically twice what the best dairymen, raising all of the feed upon the land, have been able to produce, and was made possible by raising practically nothing but corn and alfalfa, and feeding them to efficient dairy cows, well-housed and cared for.

#### RESULTS OF GOOD AND POOR DAIRYING

The actual difference in the ability of dairymen to make money in dairy farming is shown by the following data taken from a dairy survey conducted by this department on 317 dairy farms which were operated by their owners. After all expenses of operating the farm, including labor, repairs, and interest on the investment, were paid, the amount left for the owner's personal efforts or each man's labor income was as follows:

The labor income of one dairyman was....	\$ 5602
The labor income of each of three dairymen was over.....	5000
The labor income of each of four dairymen was over.....	4000

The labor income of each of eight dairymen was over .....	\$3000
The labor income of each of twenty dairymen was over.....	2000
The labor income of each of eighty dairymen was over.....	1000
The loss of each of twenty dairymen was over .....	500
The loss of each of ten dairymen was over.....	1000
The loss of each of two dairymen was over.....	1500
The loss of one dairyman was.....	1716

As twenty men lost over \$500 each, ten men lost over \$1000 each, and one man lost \$1716, the possibility of losing money in dairy farming, when not properly managed, is clearly shown, and these losses mean that these men not only worked for nothing and boarded themselves, but actually paid for the privilege. However, it is encouraging to know that the labor involved in making the profit of \$5000 per year in dairying is practically no greater than that expended when \$1500 is lost, and as each of the best eighty made over \$1000 profit per year, each of the best four made over \$4000, and each of the best three made over \$5000, there is no question as to the possibility of making money by dairy farming. The satisfaction to be derived from these gains is great, and the encouragement received pays liberally for the energy expended.

Any man who speaks lightly of the great difference in the final results of keeping good and poor cows, and raising good and poor crops, shows only his ignorance of the height or depth to which these factors can take a dairyman and his family.



CORN AND ALFALFA THE MILK-PRODUCING CROPS



# MILLIONS FOR FARM ANIMALS' HEALTH

BY CHARLES FREDERICK CARTER

CONSUMERS of meat and dairy products should take comfort from the remarkable extent and efficiency of the facilities for safeguarding the health of domestic animals displayed in dealing with the outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease last fall. For, so long as a standing army of scientific specialists is maintained on a perpetual war footing, with all the millions in money at its command that may be needed to protect the food supply, the public health may be considered safe.

## THE DEADLY FOOT-AND-MOUTH DISEASE

While the epidemic is no longer widespread, it would be rash to say that it has been entirely stamped out; for, besides being the most contagious and destructive of all diseases that afflict cattle, hogs, and sheep, it is also the most persistent. Although it has ravaged herds and flocks for 2000 years, neither cure nor preventive is known; and the disease almost defies control. It cost France \$7,000,000 in 1871 and Great Britain \$5,000,000 in 1883. Notwithstanding Germany's exceptionally good veterinary sanitary system, the foot-and-mouth disease broke out in that country in 1887 and raged uninterruptedly for ten years, affecting an aggregate of more than 3,000,000 cattle, nearly 4,000,000 sheep and goats, and 1,200,000 hogs. In the single year 1892, when the epidemic reached its height, the loss amounted to \$25,000,000.

## THE OUTBREAK OF 1914

Thanks to good management or good luck, or, perhaps, to both, the scourge has never become as thoroughly established in America as it has in European countries, although it has appeared here six times, each recurring attack being more serious than the last. The fifth outbreak, which was in 1908, originated in Michigan from infected vaccine virus imported from Japan. The disease spread to New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland before the Government got the upper hand.

The recent outbreak also appeared first

in southern Michigan, though how it was introduced there is not known. Shipments of diseased hogs from this region which passed through Chicago are believed to be responsible for the infection of pens in the Union Stock-yards. Once the yards became infected there was danger that every shipment of live stock through Chicago might pick up and spread the contagion. As a matter of fact, the epidemic did spread in an incredibly short time to sixteen States, reaching from Massachusetts to Washington and from Wisconsin to Kentucky. There seems to have been a little delay in diagnosing the first cases, which may be understood when it is known that even official inspectors have been unable to distinguish between foot-and-mouth disease and less dangerous maladies.

## PROMPT ENFORCEMENT OF QUARANTINE

Not until specimens sent from Michigan to the Bureau of Animal Industry at Washington had been examined about mid-October was the disease recognized and the peril realized. Simultaneously infected cattle were received at the Chicago stock-yards. By order of the Bureau of Animal Industry the stock-yards were at once quarantined and a corps of 150 inspectors was set to work to trace and disinfect every car in which infected cattle had been received. Diseased animals were killed and buried in quicklime, others were isolated till they could be given a clean bill of health, then slaughtered. When the yards were empty a thousand men set to work to disinfect every square inch of the thirteen thousand pens and the twenty-five miles of troughs with a 5-per-cent. solution of carbolic acid. Rats and pigeons were exterminated, for they carry the disease. Similar action was taken at Kansas City, Buffalo, and other markets where the disease appeared, and every locality in which it broke out was rigidly quarantined.

Cats, dogs, and poultry are condemned to death as disease-carriers on all infected

premises. Milk may convey the disease to calves and pigs; litter from infected barnyards may start an outbreak miles away. The contagion may also be carried in the clothing of persons coming in contact with the disease. Quarantine regulations, therefore, include all persons on infected farms. Even schools may be closed to check the spread of the contagion. Veterinarians and others whose duties require them to visit affected herds wear rubber coats, boots, hats, and gloves, which, upon leaving, are disinfected.

#### INDICATIONS

Foot-and-mouth disease, epizootic aphtha, aphthous fever, infectious aphtha or eczema epizootica, as it is variously called, usually attacks from one-fourth to one-half the herds in districts it invades, in spite of local quarantine. If a stable is infected no animal in it escapes. From three to six days after exposure to infection the animal has a chill, followed by fever, the temperature sometimes reaching 106 degrees. In a day or so vesicles from the size of a hemp seed to a silver dollar appear in the mouth, around the coronets of the feet, and between the toes. There is an excessive flow of saliva and the animal goes lame. Ordinarily the mortality is from 1 to 5 per cent., though from 60 to 80 per cent. of calves fed on infected milk die. In Russia, where conditions are similar to those in Western grazing regions, the mortality has been as high as 70 per cent. The effects of the disease on animals that recover are such as to make them practically useless. An attack does not confer immunity; on the contrary, an animal may have several attacks within a few months. In any case, it is a source of infection for months after apparent recovery.

#### INFECTED ANIMALS MUST BE KILLED

Foot-and-mouth disease is propagated by a specific virus, though its germ has never been isolated. It is so small that it will pass through a standard germ-proof filter. The most powerful microscope will not detect it. Inoculation, so successful in combating other diseases, merely spreads the infection. It is possible to cure the external symptoms, but during the process of trying to cure one sick animal the chances are that hundreds of others may be affected. Veterinary authorities of Europe and America are agreed that the only way to cope with the disease is to stop all movements of stock, hay, and other material that may possibly

have been subjected to infection, and to kill as quickly as possible all herds in which the disease has gained any foothold and bury the carcasses in quick-lime under at least five feet of earth. Owners are reimbursed at values set by State appraisers, the expense of condemnation, quarantine, and disinfection being divided equally between federal and State governments.

#### RESEARCHES OF THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE

One hopeful result of the recent outbreak was that the Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research, which was given a special endowment of a million dollars last May for the study of animal diseases, was granted permission by the Government to make laboratory studies of the virus for the purpose of isolating and identifying, if possible, the organism causing the disease. No announcement of the plans of the Institute will be made, however, until the director, Dr. Theobald Smith, who, while connected with the Bureau of Animal Industry, established the fact that a certain species of tick communicates Texas fever to cattle, the first demonstration of the theory that insects spread diseases, assumes his new duties on July 1.

#### CONVEYANCE TO HUMAN BEINGS

Besides working havoc with the food supply, foot-and-mouth disease may be conveyed to human beings by infected milk or by the virus coming in contact with open wounds. Less than forty-eight hours after infection fever sets in, accompanied by twitching of the limbs, headache, dryness and heat in the mouth and itching of the hands. After five days the tongue and mucous membrane of the mouth swell, sometimes enormously. Yellowish-white vesicles appear in the mouth, bursting in about twenty-four hours. There is intense thirst, and smarting pain follows any attempt to eat, speak or swallow. In short, the malady is distressing and repulsive and, notwithstanding reassuring official proclamations, consequences may be serious. In Dover, England, foot-and-mouth disease assumed the proportions of an epidemic among human beings in 1884, some cases resulting in death.

#### WHAT IS DONE BY THE BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY

America's comparative immunity from the scourge has been chiefly due to the liberality of the Government in spending money to protect the health of live stock, which kills



two birds with one stone; for in safeguarding animals the Government protects both the health and the pocketbook of the public. This function is entrusted to the Bureau of Animal Industry, one of the many useful branches of the Department of Agriculture. Under ordinary circumstances the average man hears little and cares less about the Bureau of Animal Industry; yet this modest agency plays a part in the national economy, the importance of which can hardly be overestimated, and which certainly is not generally appreciated.

To quote Dr. A. D. Melvin, Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry, "while fostering and promoting the live-stock industry in its various aspects, the highest mission of the bureau is to aid the people of the country in obtaining a plentiful and wholesome supply of food of animal origin, such as meat, dairy products, and eggs." To accomplish this mission the bureau employs about 3500 persons and spends more than \$3,000,000 annually.

#### INSPECTION AND CARE OF MEATS

Through its meat-inspection division the bureau comes into intimate daily touch with the public. Sixty per cent. of all meat and meat products is produced under the watchful eyes of inspectors of the bureau. Under the law only animals slaughtered on farms or by local butchers for their own trade escape inspection. Government supervision is something more than a formality. The bureau's watchfulness begins with the Field Inspection Division, which inspects live stock at points of origin, in transit and at market centers, sees that cars are disinfected according to law and supervises the enforcement of other measures to prevent the spread of contagious diseases.

At the packing-house the Meat Inspection Division takes up the vigil. Animals about the health of which any doubts exist are slaughtered under special supervision. Then, if indications of disease are found, the entire carcass is tanked. All meat undergoes inspection after slaughter and not a piece can be shipped until it has received an inspector's mark of approval. As indicating the thoroughness of this post-mortem inspection it may be said that in 1911 18,851,930 pounds of meat was condemned. All meat products are prepared under supervision of the bureau. As the result of more than twenty-seven thousand laboratory examinations in 1913 it can be said that no illegal preservatives or coloring matter are used in these products.

#### LIVE-STOCK LOSSES FROM DISEASE

But for the successful activity of the Bureau of Animal Industry in combating diseases of animals steaks and chops would be so scarce that only millionaires could afford them. In the aggregate the annual losses due to diseases of live stock in the United States are appalling. As estimated by the Bureau of Animal Industry these losses are as follows:

Hog cholera.....	\$75,000,000
Texas fever and cattle ticks.....	40,000,000
Tuberculosis .....	25,000,000
Contagious abortion.....	20,000,000
Blackleg .....	6,000,000
Anthrax .....	1,500,000
Scabies of sheep and cattle.....	4,600,000
Glanders .....	5,000,000
Other diseases.....	22,000,000
Parasites .....	5,000,000
Poultry diseases.....	8,750,000
	<hr/>
	\$212,850,000

It is estimated that the meat animals lost annually by disease and exposure, if they could be saved, would be sufficient to furnish a normal year's meat supply for the entire population of the New England States.

#### FIGHTING TEXAS FEVER

To reduce this enormous loss is the chief end for which the Bureau of Animal Industry exists. It has many notable successes to its credit. The greatest achievement of the bureau was to discover that ticks caused Texas fever and then to find a practicable method of getting rid of the ticks. After eight years of effort the bureau was able to report in 1914 that 30 per cent. of the territory originally infested by these ticks had been cleared of them so that it was safe to release from quarantine some 200,000 square miles of territory, which is more than equal to the combined areas of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. This means that a vast area where once but little beef was raised is now available for that purpose. Cattle-raising offers an added source of revenue for the Southern farmer and an extra source of meat supply for a market that needs it. The total extinction of the tick is now only a question of time and money.

#### INOCULATING AGAINST HOG CHOLERA

Another notable achievement of the bureau resulted from studies of hog cholera, pursued for a number of years. The investigation proved that the disease was caused by a micro-organism so minute that its form or

structure cannot be determined by the microscope. The next step was the production of a serum which prevents the disease. This serum has been patented and assigned to the free use of the people of the United States. Every State has been notified of the discovery and urged to undertake the manufacture of the serum for the benefit of the farmers. A majority have acted on this suggestion and considerably more than a million hogs have been given the protective inoculation with satisfactory results. This is only a beginning, to be sure, but results obtained promise much for the future.

#### OTHER ACTIVITIES OF THE BUREAU

Blackleg in former years caused a loss of 10 per cent. of calves in certain regions. The bureau perfected a protective vaccine, of which more than 17,000,000 doses have been distributed in the last fifteen years, reducing the loss to less than  $\frac{1}{2}$  of 1 per cent.

Bureau investigations show that 5 per cent. of dairy herds are tuberculous. This discovery has resulted in the removal of more than a hundred thousand infected animals, an achievement of the utmost importance to public health and of no less economic importance on account of the menace to the health of other animals.

Another recent achievement is the development of a greatly improved test for glanders, making it possible to diagnose that dangerous disease promptly and accurately. Many thousands of doses of mallein are furnished annually for testing mules and horses for glanders.

A large proportion of the 200 species of insects that commonly attack domestic animals have been made the subject of study by the bureau. Sheep scab and cattle mange have been eliminated in more than 135,000 square miles of territory formerly quarantined on account of these pests. The heel fly, which transmits blood diseases, including the deadly anthrax, and stable flies, which were so bad in 1912 in a part of the Southwest

that they killed 300 cattle, mules, and horses outright, largely prevented field work, caused many runaways, and reduced milk production more than half, have been studied with a view to their extermination.

The bureau has worked out the life history of the stomach worm of the sheep, a parasite that causes a loss of millions of dollars. This information is the necessary foundation on which preventive and remedial measures must be based. Similarly, the discovery of the gid parasite in sheep is expected to lead to a remedy. The fact that tapeworm cysts are common in the muscles of the sheep has also been established. These cysts render the mutton undesirable as food, and mean a heavy loss to the sheep growers, but it is a great comfort to consumers of mutton to know that meat inspectors will now be on the alert to guard them from this peril.

The discovery of the hookworm and its extensive distribution in the United States was made by a scientist in the employ of the Bureau of Animal Industry, who has now gone to another branch of the public service.

The bureau is also conducting a study of rabies. The prevalence of this malady, eliminated in England and Argentina by banishing most of the dogs and by the relentless enforcement of laws for the control of the remainder, may be surmised from the fact that the various Pasteur Institutes in America treat upward of 1500 cases a year, while deaths from hydrophobia amount to more than 160 a year. Unless the Pasteur treatment is used in time one person out of five bitten by mad dogs develops hydrophobia, which invariably terminates in a horrible death. Furthermore, meat and milk from animals afflicted with rabies is dangerous.

These are but a representative few of the activities of the Bureau of Animal Industry which in the aggregate result in the saving of scores of millions of dollars' worth of property and hundreds of human lives every year.





# THE CORONER: A STORY OF POLITICAL DEGENERACY

BY H. S. GILBERTSON

[This article discusses a question of great interest in many States,—Why is the Coroner? The New York Constitutional Convention may attempt a solution of the problem.—THE EDITOR.]

IN politics, as in biology, there is a disintegrating process so constant as to merit the name of law. Public institutions, failing to keep pace with their environment, or deprived of the purifying sunlight of public opinion and public interest, droop, wither, and mortify and become a menace to society and public health. In the world of local politics the star degenerate is the office of coroner. Decay has been consuming the institution through a score of generations, till it has become an all but useless public charge. The truth of this general statement has never been so strikingly illustrated as in the investigation of the coroner system in New York City recently made by the Commissioner of Accounts at the direction of Mayor Mitchel. After examining under oath 390 witnesses the Commissioner reported in terms of unqualified condemnation the elective system which entrusted the important function of medico-legal inquiry to plumbers, marble-cutters, undertakers, paint-dealers, saloon-keepers, and mediocre physicians, several of whom testified, with a straight face, to the sufficiency of "horse-sense" as a qualification for fixing the responsibility for a violent or suspicious death.

The constitutions in most States have vested the coroner with a mysterious importance, which the public fails to comprehend, but takes in such good faith that it not only permits the continuance of the office but keeps its elective character inbedded in the fundamental law as an inalienable popular "right."

The great anomaly about the office is its weird combination of functions, harking back to simple Saxon days when there was no science of medicine and only the germ of the common law, and the "Crownor" was the general handy man of the King. Imported into America by the English colonists, the officer has been a catch-all for unclassified duties, as, for instance, in Ohio, where we find him obliged to arrest persons

who have been attempting to sell liquor within two miles of an agricultural fair and to assist in the arrest of criminals attempting to escape from the penitentiary. In most States, too, he is the understudy of the sheriff and may act in his stead in certain cases. But his chief function is to act as the original inquisitor into the causes of death by violence, or under suspicious circumstances.

## *Knows Little Medicine and Less Law*

For the latter and extremely important duty the majority of coroners have not the slightest qualifications. Every lawyer knows what shrewd and skilled investigation is needed, beginning immediately after the commission of a crime, to secure a complete chain of evidence against the guilty party. But the coroner is rarely, if ever, a lawyer. In a large proportion of cases the causes of death are not apparent either from a superficial examination of the body or from the questioning of witnesses. So that it then becomes necessary to resort to autopsy, and frequently to microscopical, bacteriological or chemical examination of the organs. This requires the services of a highly skilled pathologist. But a coroner is almost never that. And since it is virtually impossible to find the needed medical and legal skill in a single human being, it is customary to split the difference and give the job to a layman!

In some States, to be sure, the coroner must be a medical man, but too often his certificate works to conceal his actual incapacity. Even the special provision in some jurisdictions, for the appointment of a coroner's physician is apparently no guarantee of proficiency, since the coroner, if a layman, or even an inferior physician, has no appreciation of the highly specialized skill required in his subordinate. And so it happened that the coroner's physician in a large Western city confessed, with perfect good grace, that he had never looked into a microscope; and

a certain coroner's physician in New York City, entering the morgue for the first time, remarked that, in his case, "Tammany Hall had mistaken an orator for a pathologist."

All this implies no mere piece of expensive inefficiency. The coroner's blunders carry with them a terrible seriousness which none but the part of the public that is directly involved, has come to appreciate.

### *The Coroner's Negligence Helps Criminals to Escape Justice*

In the large centers of population the coroner's office is an important factor in the administration of criminal justice. Mr. Burns has made the public familiar with the responsibilities of apparent trifles in determining the authorship of crime, of the "track" that every criminal leaves; and if the chief training of the coroner has not been in the detective business, but in the plumbing trade, or in mixing drinks at a saloon bar, or even in the more dignified practise of medicine, it will readily be seen how natural it is for him to move a piece of furniture from its original position, thus possibly obscuring the direction of a bullet, or to obliterate some other equally vital bits of physical evidence.

In the handling of the inquest the untrained coroner is so likely to introduce testimony which will give the defense a chance to manufacture perjured evidence, that it is customary, at least in New York City, to have a representative of the district attorney on hand at every inquisition to prevent such accidents. For, as an assistant district attorney recently said, "the coroner does nothing which must not be done over again, for he cannot be trusted to do anything right." When it happens that a close co-operation exists between the two offices, the cause of justice runs smoothly, but when opposite political parties are in control, the danger that a criminal will escape through the fingers of Justice is serious indeed.

The inefficiency of the office is most markedly shown in the investigations of poisonings. This is natural, since poisons are more difficult to detect than any other agency of violence. Some of them leave almost no trace at all and nearly all of them reveal their presence in the body only after a chemical test. And yet, in spite of these known facts, there are coroners and coroner's physicians who deem their duty well done when they have questioned a few interested witnesses and searched the surroundings for

empty bottles. In New York alone, out of the hundreds of homicides that are committed annually not more than one or two a year are laid to drugs. It is so easy for an ignorant or lazy coroner to stop short of a complete investigation and "fake" the death certificate, or to lay the victim's death to "some natural cause, the nature of which is unknown to the jury!"

But does it seem likely that the clever denizens of the underworld are unaware of this negligence? And is it at all improbable that the administration of the coroner's office, by negligence at least, is a promoter of murders? A leading pathologist testified in the New York investigation that, so far as the work of most of the coroners and coroners' physicians was concerned, the crime of infanticide might be practised in that city with impunity!

### *Making Insurance Frauds Easy*

The growing popularity of life and accident insurance within recent years has greatly increased the need of exactly determining the cause of death, for the border line of symptoms as between natural causes and violence, so far as external evidences are concerned, is often extremely indistinct. A fatal illness may be directly traceable to a fall which took place months previous, or to a variety of other conditions and circumstances. It is not enough to say, "the man is dead; that is all we need to know," for the whole structure of the accident and casualty, and to a somewhat less extent, of life, insurance business depends upon administrative methods which are exact. Unless this is the case, and if the companies are always in imminent danger of being called upon to pay large fraudulent claims or to enter upon prolonged and expensive litigation, the cost of insurance is increased to neutralize the effects of the fraud or carelessness. In the long run the public foots the bill.

What, for instance, happened in the following case?

A merchant of about forty years of age is found dead in a bathtub with the water turned on. The coroner is secretly notified and he appears on the scene in person (which is unusual), with the coroner's physician. Together they proceed to the investigation, asking questions of everybody, examining the surroundings and the body of the dead man. To make sure that there has been no poisoning, they smell the man's mouth for prussic acid. And they write out this enlightening statement of the cause of death: "Asphyxia;



found in a bathtub filled with water. Inquest pending."

Previous to that time the man has never been ill and has proven so good a risk that the life-insurance companies a few weeks before have issued him policies aggregating over \$300,000; and yet his family physician claims to have been treating him for hardening of the arteries! An examination of his affairs shows him to have been heavily involved. Large issues hang upon the determination of the exact cause of death. Did he die from natural causes? If so, his heirs are entitled to collect upon the policies, but if he has committed suicide the insurance companies, under the terms of the policy, are not liable. One would suppose that under these conditions the coroner would not rest until he had discovered the cause of death beyond any possibility of contradiction. But in fact he did nothing of the kind. Not one item of competent medical evidence was submitted at the inquest. A thorough autopsy, which the law allows and expects, would have cleared up the mystery, but this for some reason was omitted.

#### *How a Good Coroner Might Promote the Administration of Justice*

Contrariwise, the innocent reap the benefit of good administration, as in this instance: A little girl was found strangled to death in a crowded foreign district. There were marks upon her throat, as from violence. The only other person in the vicinity was her father. Superficially, the case was clearly one of murder. A crowd of excited persons attacked the man and were about to lynch him when the police came upon the scene and arrested him. To all appearances he was headed straight for the electric chair. Then Providence intervened. The coroner's physician in this case was not content with external evidences and so decided upon an autopsy. He opened the little girl's larynx and found a wad of chewing gum! The usual slipshod administration of the coroner's office would have sent the father to his doom.

The good work done by the coroner's physician in this case gives but a mild hint of the enormous possibilities to humanity of proper administration of what are now the coroner's functions. Those familiar with the legal departments of the life and accident-insurance companies testify that if the possibilities of fraud in the cases which are now the subject of public investigation could be eliminated, the premiums could be greatly

reduced. From the insurance case cited above in which the fixing of liability for payment depended upon the skill and integrity of a single public official, one can form some vague notion of the magnitude of the public interest in exact vital statistics. The insurance companies, however, have not been aggressive in changing the system, but have been inclined to shift the burden upon the ultimate consumers, who hold their policies.

Good administration, too, would be of incalculable value to medical science. At the present time the statistics of the coroner's office throughout the country are regarded by trained investigators as practically worthless. On the other hand, the general run of cases of death by natural causes are not subject to compulsory autopsy and only in rare instances is a post-mortem examination made. And so, the data which comes within the purview of the public investigator could be made to yield a rich mass of scientific material upon which to base conclusions as to the cause and symptoms of disease.

#### *The Massachusetts System,—Medical Inspectors Appointed by the Governor*

A few States have recognized their opportunities. Massachusetts is the most conspicuous of these. Forty years ago that State suffered acutely from the coroners. In Boston alone there were forty of them separately elected, every one an incompetent politician, or worse. In every way the situation became intolerable and the demand for better things got recognition. The whole elective system was wiped out. The State was divided up into districts, regardless of the existing local units, and for each district there was appointed by the Governor a medical examiner and an associate who, in the language of the law, must each be an "able and discreet person learned in the science of medicine." These medical men were expected to perform only the work for which they had been trained and the judicial functions were turned over to magistrates of the local courts. So successful has been the operation of this plan in the Suffolk district (Boston) that the findings of the medical examiners there have never been successfully combated in a legal action.

From time to time the Massachusetts system has been adopted in the other New England States, with slight modifications, except in Connecticut. New Jersey also has a good system in its larger counties. Because of constitutional restrictions it has been impossible in that State to abandon the coroners

entirely, but they have been so largely stripped of their powers that their existence is more of a nuisance than a menace. The real power of investigation has been conferred upon the county physician, who not only looks into the causes of violent and suspicious deaths but serves as a medical adviser or expert in the criminal courts. His testimony is taken as the last word on the technical matter at hand, and the lay jury must accept it as such, just as it might take the rulings of the judge on technical legal matters. Both in Massachusetts and in the larger counties of New Jersey, the tendency has been to retain these medical men for long periods of time. Every year they become more and more valuable to your communities by reason of their accumulated mass of experience, for which no amount of formal training could properly be substituted.

*What Shall Be Substituted for the Coroner's Office?*

The question naturally arises as to whether the Massachusetts system could be extended to other States to advantage. Undoubtedly it could, but it is capable of improvement. Within the past forty years medical science has been so completely revolutionized that if the Massachusetts law were to be taken literally and not administered in accordance with modern standards of professional proficiency, the medical examiner system would be a poor substitute for the coroners. Medical advance, so far as the methods of scientific inquiry are concerned, has been especially great in the fields of bacteriology and microscopy.

In larger cities, therefore, it would be necessary to appoint a physician having more than a general medical education. A city should, in the first place, select one who has specialized in pathology and has accumulated a wide experience in the practical investigation of causes and symptoms of diseases. Such a man, once found, should be thoroughly equipped with laboratories for bacteriological and other forms of special examination. In many of the larger cities the machinery for such an organization on these lines already exists in the local medical colleges and hospitals, and if their facilities were utilized would have the additional advantage of supplying the young men enrolled in medical study with the original facts and conditions of disease. New York City, if, and when, it shall be able to discard the present coroner system, will be able to make use of

the splendid laboratories at Bellevue Hospital. In the county of Onondaga, N.Y., an enlightened coroner, already, without compulsion of law, has appointed as his "coroner's physician" the pathological department of Syracuse University.

In the country districts and small cities, especially in the large States, the problem of reform is more difficult. Fortunately, however, the number of their violent and suspicious deaths per capita is very much lower than in more densely populated communities. But the need for careful investigation in individual cases is quite as great. The most hopeful solution would probably be to do away with the coronership entirely and require the governor to appoint for the whole State a chief medical examiner who might, in turn, appoint as many assistant examiners as were needed to cover cases arising in different sections of the State.

Some such program as outlined would do much to pave the way for a complete revision of our methods of inquiry into medical facts in both civil and criminal actions. The fake "expert" and "specialist" has had things far too much his own way, and even the most honest and capable medical witnesses have often been beset with temptations in having to appear in court in behalf of one side of a case. The leaders of the medical profession look forward to the time when medico-legal inquiry will take on the character of a search after the truth rather than an effort to make out a case for a client. In that event the medical examiner, replacing the coroner, may well be made the medico-legal officer.

But the consummation of that program will be difficult. Many people find the coroner a very present help in time of trouble. Perhaps it is the district attorney himself who wants to "put over" something which no honest and well-trained magistrate would countenance. Criminal medical practitioners find in the coroner a haven of refuge; unscrupulous undertakers an avenue to lucrative trade; "shyster" lawyers an unfailing source of valuable special information. And finally, there is the politician, who is the broker of these different kinds of privilege, in addition to the considerable patronage which goes with the office. Before the coronership can be abolished, these beneficiaries will have to be placated, or exposed. But the result will be worth any effort it may require to rid politics of a flagrant source of inefficiency, if not corruption, and to simplify, by just so much, the citizens' task at the ballot box.



# THE IMPROVED OUTLOOK FOR COTTON

BY RICHARD SPILLANE

THE cotton crisis is settling itself. In fact, the past tense might be used, for the crisis is practically over. Nothing commercially that has come out of the complications into which this country was thrown by the European war is more surprising than the manner in which this has come about.

The great depression of last year in the cotton industry of the world was considered in an article on "The Cotton Crisis at Home and Abroad" which I contributed to this REVIEW in November. At the same time, reference was made to the various artificial attempts to relieve the situation, such as the "Buy-a-Bale" movement, "Cotton Day,"—for the encouragement of the use of cotton,—efforts at State and Federal legislation, financial pools, and other devices.

Never was there more commotion over an agricultural crop grown on American soil. Never were there more frantic efforts to provide methods of relief.

## THE NATURAL SOLUTION

To-day, only a few months after the period of most intense agitation about the plight of the South, the cotton problem has ceased to be much of a problem. It has provided its own solution through natural laws. The \$135,000,000 loan fund has been made an absurdity by the restrictions placed about the lending of the money by the managers of the fund. The "Buy-a-Bale" movement has been relegated to the lumber-room of American freaks, and the farmers and the shopkeepers, the bankers and the business men of the South are beginning to see a chance of winding up this cotton year with far less of ruin and disaster than they expected or feared. They are not asking for help and they need none. They are learning something about economy they never dreamt of before, and while they have been learning, the conditions attending cotton have been improving rapidly.

With most of Europe at war, sea traffic disorganized, finance more deranged and tangled than ever before, industry the world

over crippled, and the South smothered under such an unprecedented avalanche of cotton, the idea prevailed that there could be no advance in values until restricted planting this year should indicate that the immense surplus of the 1914 crop would be needed to make up the shortage of the 1915 crop.

Despite all the things that were against it, the price of cotton has gone up,—not a little but considerably. It has not been a spurt but a steady rise. It has advanced in the face of real and artificial obstacles in a way to confound the most experienced men in the trade. Now, half of the crop has been disposed of by the farmers. The weight of the crop, which was crushing not long since, is getting lighter each day. The South will get far more money for its monster crop than seemed possible. It will not get enough to pay the cost of production, but the South will have the great satisfaction of having financed itself in its time of greatest stress. Scarcely a dollar of the \$135,000,000 loan fund has been taken.

## EUROPE TO THE RESCUE

It was Europe that brought the disaster to the South and it was Europe that came to the rescue when the situation was most desperate.

America usually consumes nearly forty per cent. of the American crop. With Europe in the throes of war, the expectation was that American mills would increase their output, broaden their markets, need more cotton and help in a small way to lessen the tension on the cotton grower. The contrary has proved true. American mill takings have been the smallest in years. The American mill stocks on hand to-day are little more than two-thirds of what they were a year ago and the indications are that when the American spinner does purchase his raw material in volume he will have to pay far more for it than have his foreign competitors.

The Japanese were the first to do any

considerable buying. In the days when all the exchanges of the world were closed and conditions in the South were so chaotic that there was no parity, no established basis of value, cotton selling in one county or one State at one price and in another State or county at a radically different figure, some Japanese buyers got busy in Texas. There are records of cotton being sold at five cents a pound, and there are reports of some being sacrificed for even a smaller sum, but this was only where the grower was in acute financial distress. The crop of this season in Texas is extra good as to staple. The Japanese thought the time was opportune. They bought thousands and then tens of thousands of bales. They paid as high as eight cents a pound, although in other States cotton was selling at less than seven cents, and in some instances six cents a pound. Their purchases exceeded 100,000 bales. That is not much in a 16,000,000 crop, but it was evidence to the South that cotton was not friendless.

About this time various men in the cotton mills of Europe began to worry. They had stocks of raw material on hand but not enough to carry them through very many months. They had reports of the price at which cotton was selling in the South. It was so cheap that they longed to get some of it. Ordinarily this would be a simple operation. All they would have to do would be to cable an order to America to buy the actual stuff or, better still, purchase options in the New York, New Orleans, Liverpool, Havre or Bremen cotton exchanges for future delivery. But all the cotton exchanges were closed. No business could be done through them. They could not depend on cabling orders to American houses to make purchases for them because the cable lines were under rigid censorship, and the delays were exasperating. More than that, many cablegrams never were transmitted. The whole cable system was undependable. In addition there was a still greater element to disturb them. They knew of the failure of various American cotton concerns that had been held in high esteem. They had no assurance that if they gave orders for the purchase of cotton the stuff would be delivered in accordance with their needs.

#### HOW THE EUROPEAN MILLS GOT THEIR SUPPLY

In the demoralization and general collapse of the machinery of business, they could not take chances. They considered

the subject in all its phases and then they did the thing they knew was best. They got money from their banks and transferred it to this country. It must have been difficult but they did it. Then they came in person or sent agents to America. Some of them arrived before the New York Cotton Exchange reopened, and some later. Cotton was very low. They bought sparingly at first because it was almost impossible to arrange for shipment.

With the opening of the New York and New Orleans exchanges, there was a decline in prices, but the Southern spot markets did not sag so much as did the market for futures. The buying of the foreigners was being felt. Gradually a change came over the situation. Prices of spots and futures advanced a little, eased off, and then stiffened again. Purchases in the spot markets of the South increased. As they did so a buying of futures by the foreigners developed, and week by week it broadened. Cotton advanced a dollar, two dollars, three dollars, four dollars, five dollars, six dollars and more a bale. Coincident with this advance the situation on the sea improved. Whereas, almost no cotton was exported in the months of August, September and October, there was such a tremendous demand for ships in November, December, and January that freights rose to unheard-of figures. Early this year the rate from Gulf ports to Liverpool was \$1.25 per 100 pounds. That means \$6.25 a bale. To Genoa it was \$1.50 per 100 pounds or \$7.50 a bale. To Rotterdam \$2.50 per 100 pounds or \$12.50 a bale. To Bremen \$3.50 per 100 pounds or \$17.50 a bale. A vessel will carry, generally speaking, four bales of cotton for each ton of its net capacity. Therefore, a ship of 3000 tons net should carry 12,000 bales. That would mean a freight of \$150,000 if the cargo was destined to Rotterdam, \$210,000 if bound for Bremen or \$75,000 if going to Liverpool.

#### THE QUESTION OF GETTING THE SHIPS

To build a ship of 3000 net tonnage costs in England not more than \$200,000. Many shipbuilders of the Clyde or the Tyne would be pleased to contract to turn out ships of that size for less. In normal times the rate on cotton from Gulf ports to Liverpool, Rotterdam or Bremen is about 40 cents per 100 pounds. Surely these are wonderful days for owners of ships. Next to a gold mine, a ship is a thing of marvelous profit. One thing that should be made clear is that



a ship sailing from a Southern port will carry more cotton than one from a Northern port. In the North cotton is "rolled" into the hold; that is, stowed away as any package of goods would be. In the South, the stevedores have trained crews who use jack-screws, and work the bales into the smallest possible space in the tiers they occupy. By the Southern method of "screwing" cotton a ship carries possibly 10 per cent. more in bales than by the system in vogue in the North.

When once the turn came everything seemed to conspire to help the South. The British Government surprised the world by taking cotton out of the list of contraband and declaring that it would not interfere with cotton shipments in neutral bottoms to Germany. Immediately owners of ships of American registry took advantage of the opportunity to get the rich freights offered on cargo to Bremen. To be sure they had to run the risk of the mines that strew the North Sea. They had, too, to overcome the tremendous handicap of sea insurance. They could get insurance on the vessels from the United States Government, but it was another matter to get it on the cargo. But they got it.

That did not end their troubles. They had hoped to obtain pilots to guide their vessels through the channels between the mines. In this they failed. As might be expected in this emergency they took chances. Good luck was with them and the steamships *El Monte*, *Greenbrier* and *Carolyn*, arriving safely in Bremen with cotton, almost paid for themselves in the one voyage. In bringing back cargoes of dyestuffs and other German products on which they get freights almost as high as on cotton they are bringing a rich reward to their owners.

There is no sign of an immediate drop in freight rates. The purchases of cotton by the foreigners who have flocked to America are so large that, steamers being extremely difficult to obtain, schooners and sailing ships are being chartered to take cotton to Europe.

#### THE RAPID RISE IN THE EXPORT FIGURES

A glance at the export figures is illuminating. In the season of 1913-14 our exports were 8,800,000 bales. The cotton season is from August 1 to July 31. Up to October 28, 1914, we had exported only 395,180 bales as against 2,090,000 on the same date in 1913. On January 2, 1915, our exports had risen to 2,830,271 as against 5,611,062 on the same date in 1914. On

January 13, 1915, we passed the 3,000,000 mark. On February 1 our exports were 3,816,492 as against 6,417,027 to that date in 1914.

Since December 1, 1914, our exports have been on a larger scale than in the same period of last season. Our port stocks are in excess of 1,500,000 bales. This is 50 per cent. greater than normal, and the amount on shipboard waiting clearance in February approximated 500,000 bales, or nearly 100 per cent. more than at the same time last season. It seems reasonable to predict that our exports this year will exceed 6,500,000 bales, and if the present ratio of gain is maintained it will be 7,000,000 bales. The foremost American authority now predicts 7,500,000. On February 1, vessels carrying 129,993 bales of cotton left America. This is the largest export record for one day in the history of cotton.

The figures of October 28, 1914, and February 1, 1915, are impressive proof of what the foreign buyers have been doing.

How many of these foreign cotton men there are at present in America it is difficult to estimate. There are at least twenty today in New York. Others are scattered through the South. They are from Bremen, Ghent, Barcelona, Petrograd, Berlin, Alsace, Genoa,—everywhere, it seems. The amount of actual cotton they have bought does not show in the reports alone. Some of the stuff they have purchased has been stored in warehouses. And they have bought futures. One of the foreign buyers is authority for the statement that through the purchases of stuff exported, warehoused or in futures, some of them have accumulated two years' supply. Against their purchases of futures, delivery must be made. That is a great sustaining influence.

Up to this time last year, Northern spinners had taken 1,844,069 bales. Their takings at the time of this writing were 1,612,976. Southern spinners made a better showing, their 1914 figures being 1,566,000 against 1,530,000 at the same time this year.

American spinners are reported now to be buying more freely. They must do so owing to their reduced stocks. The American consumption of cotton last year was approximately 5,800,000 bales. The present crop is estimated at about 16,000,000 bales. If American consumption equals that of last season, and the exports are as indicated in the foregoing, the surplus will be in the neighborhood of 3,500,000. In the light of recent events that has not the terror it in-

spired back in the dark days following the opening of the war. In fact, it can be viewed almost with complacency. Its importance and its value depend upon two things: the duration of the war and the size of the next crop. There is as much basis for doubt as to one as there is to the other.

#### THE PART COTTON PLAYS IN POWDER- MAKING

One thing that has not been considered in its influence on cotton values is the tremendous use of guncotton by reason of the war. All the powder made in the United States is manufactured out of guncotton. The same statement is true as regards Russia, France, and Germany. About 70 per cent. of the powder made in England is manufactured out of guncotton. From 50 to 70 per cent. of the powder made in Austria, Italy, Sweden, and Norway is made of guncotton. For making powder linters are preferred to the cotton of commerce. Linters are the parts of the fiber that adhere to the seed after the ginning. There are machines not only for cutting this fiber from the seed, but, later, for shaving from the seed what remains of the fuzzy stuff. The powder-maker takes these fragments of cotton and chops and grinds them up into particles so small that not one is more than three one-hundredths of an inch in length, and then treats them with nitric and sulphuric acid. Then, he washes them and gives another treatment to them, this time the dose being of ether and alcohol. That makes powder; and for practically every pound of linters used one pound of powder is the result. In America there are five great powder plants. Two,—those at Dover, N. J., and Indian Head on the Potomac,—are owned by the Government. Three,—those at Karney's Point, opposite Wilmington, Del., and those at Parlin, N. J., and Haskell, N. J.,—are owned by private interests. The normal output of the American powder mills is 10,000,000 pounds a year. The extreme capacity is about 15,000,000 pounds. That means 30,000 bales of linters.

Europe's powder-making capacity is from ten to twenty times as great as that of America. It is possible for Europe to produce perhaps 300,000,000 pounds of powder in one year. If linters were used in all this powder-making it would amount to 600,000 bales of linters required by Europe. There is a suspicion that Europe is making and using all the powder it can. If that suspicion is warranted 450,000 bales of linters

would not be an excessive estimate to make for this account. If the powder people have not linters at hand they undoubtedly will turn to cotton. It necessitates more chopping, but that does not signify if the need is great. Some of the cotton bought by foreign agents recently probably will be shot away in rifles and big guns before the war ends. Recent newspaper reports indicate large orders for guncotton for the belligerent governments.

It is the gun of large caliber that eats up cotton. In the firing of a 12-inch gun 300 pounds of powder are required. That means 300 pounds of cotton. One shot of a 12-inch gun requires as much powder as 42,000 shots of the rifle an infantryman uses, or 150 shots from an ordinary field gun. It is in a sea fight that cotton comes into its own, however. Theoretically it is possible for a battleship in firing all its guns to use 5000 to 6000 pounds of powder a minute,—that is ten to twelve bales of cotton.

Linters are used in a multitude of manufactures, and there is a demand for all that are put on the market, so, in a broad sense, all the guncotton used in powder-making in this war means that much less cotton for commerce.

#### REDUCED ACREAGE FOR THE 1915 CROP

Cotton has profited by the shortage of wool and flax. Europe depends on Australia, South America, and South Africa for much of its supply of wool. To a wool crop none too large the situation in regard to vessels added another trouble. Few ships could be spared for the long trips to the South Atlantic or South Pacific, while there was urgent need for them in the comparatively safe and profitable trade in the North Atlantic.

Cotton is entering into many employments where wool formerly was used. This is partly because of the scarcity of wool, and partly due to the high price to which it has gone. The tremendous amount of wool consumed in the winter uniforms and coverings for the European armies accentuates the shortage. No material lasts long with an army.

The summer uniform of the British Army is made largely of cotton. Even the Highland regiments have had to come to cotton. They are reported to be giving up their beloved kilts of highly colored wool for the khaki which makes them less of a target for the enemy.

Cotton, too, has benefited at the expense of



flax. Russia has been the largest producer of flax, its acreage sown to that most ancient of textiles being nearly one-half of the world's total. Northwest France and Belgium have the reputation of growing the best flax. The river Lys has been called the Golden River because of its fields of flax. Along the Lys, and particularly in the neighborhood of Armentières, famous for its flax industries, some of the hardest fighting of the war has been seen. The flax fields have been devastated. The less there is of flax the more the need of cotton.

In round figures the cotton crop of 1914-15 was grown on 36,000,000 acres. Within the next forty-five days ground will be broken and seed put into the soil in various parts of the South for the next crop. That there will be a reduced acreage is unquestionable. Never was there a more earnest agitation to that end. The arguments and the reasons for it are many. Primarily there is the great carryover from the present yield, and the potent influence of the perpendicular drop from 12 cents to 6 cents a pound for cotton. Next there is the high price at which wheat and corn are selling. Then comes the fact that is sinking deeper and deeper into the Southern farmer of the hazard of depending on one crop.

As against these must be set up the following: The situation is not so bad to-day

as it threatened to be, and the grower of cotton is getting more for his crop than he thought three months ago was likely. If cotton should continue the advance in price that began in December, the effect unquestionably will be to soften the extreme views of some persons in respect to curtailment of the acres they put to cotton. Another consideration that counts is that many Southern farmers never have raised anything but cotton and know little about wheat or corn cultivation. Crop demonstrators of the Department of Agriculture have been working among them for years to broaden their views as to diversification, but there are many yet to be taught.

Estimates of the acreage of the crop of 1915 vary from 28,000,000 to 33,000,000. If the difference is split and 30,500,000 is accepted as probable it will be the greatest reduction shown in any one season. The yield per acre may be abnormally low.

Whatever the size of the next crop the world probably will need all of it regardless of how much is left over from the monster yield of 1914-15. The convulsion brought on by the European war has made two things plain in regard to cotton. One is as to the urgency of its needs and the other is that in crises natural laws prevail regardless of makeshifts and temporary expedients.

## AMERICA'S INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL RECOVERY

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

THE law of economic compensation seems to read that the United States must benefit in its commercial pursuits and in the advancement of its financial influence so long as the European war lasts, for this is the line along which there is least resistance; but it also carries the suggestion that when the war is over and the cost of it is being reckoned up and paid for, this country, in common with every other country, must feel the material sting of it.

Very few, except those who make powder or armor plate, uphold the contention that war pays in a commercial sense, even with a neutral nation. The farmer who raises wheat prospers, to be sure, from the insatiable foreign demand for his product at a 100 per

cent. advance over the average price. But then 100,000,000 of people have to add 50 per cent. to their flour bill, and the Southern grower of cotton must deduct 50 per cent. from the value of his year's crop, while the reduction in his purchasing power increases the mortality of the Southern merchant by from 40 to 50 per cent. The record of failures for the entire country has never been so great as it was in January. Bank clearings at Kansas City and Minneapolis last year increased an average of 5 per cent., at St. Paul 10 per cent., and at smaller grain-distributing centers from 40 to 125 per cent., but they decreased at Houston 12 per cent., at Savannah 23 per cent., at Galveston 9 per cent., and frequently in the last three months of

the year were off 25 to 40 per cent. a week at various Southern points.

#### INCREASED FOREIGN TRADE

War, in its early stages, makes for "spotty" industrial condition beyond its own area. The distinctive trade phase in this country from August 1 to November 1 was the feverish activity of a certain few manufacturing concerns alongside of which were located plants operating at from 25 per cent. to 40 per cent. of normal capacity. Steadily and without interruption this disparity has been reduced and the volume of nearly every line of business is increasing in more direct ratio to the gain in new wealth from supplies being sent to feed, clothe and equip the armies operating in Europe.

The first shock was so great, the lightning struck so hard, even at this distance from the battle line, that 150 American corporations, some of them the strongest in resources we have, were forced to reduce or pass their dividends, involving an annual loss to stockholders of \$125,000,000. At the same time the tax bill of the country was increased \$100,000,000 to meet the deficit in customs receipts and internal collections, and still the deficit grows. It has now reached \$80,000,000 and promises to be \$100,000,000 before summer. The postal deficit alone is about \$15,000,000. But so unevenly are the commercial effects of war distributed that, while this heavy toll was being exacted of the individual, the foreign trade balance of the country was rising to totals never before reached, even in most prosperous years.

Most of us are more concerned with the permanent effect of the war on American business and finance than with the transient benefits to be derived from it by this country of large resources and a neutral place in world politics. We do not care to gloat too openly over the increasing stream of dollars that comes back from across the Atlantic for our bullets and our bandages, but we do want to take every advantage that is legitimately offered to strengthen our trade relations overseas and to effect, so far as we can, a change in the credit status of the country. The immediate condition is forced upon us, and it is quite proper to get from it what we can, but if the perspective of business gets out of plumb because of too intense application to the profits of the moment, the United States will lose the greatest opportunity in its history to place itself abreast of Great Britain and Germany, the one the money power of the world, and the other the so far unbeat-

able distributor of manufactured products in foreign markets.

#### UNCLE SAM AS BANKER

Already there have been suggestions of what we have a right to expect in the matter of division of the trade and banking of the world with those nations that have been in control of both. On one day in January gold arrived in New York from China, from Japan, from France, from Cuba, and for London account, indirectly, from Ottawa. Dollar exchange, the dream of the American international banker, is no longer a possibility for future generations to consider, but a very tangible present quantity. To this date approximately \$125,000,000 of American capital has been loaned to foreign countries because the usual sources of supplies in London and Paris have been closed to them. Some of the beneficiaries are Argentina, Sweden, Canada, Switzerland, Holland, and Russia. It is estimated that Great Britain has invested in her colonies and foreign countries the huge sum of \$20,000,000,000. French foreign investments are placed at \$10,000,000,000 and those of Germany at \$9,000,000,000. Now, as a protective measure, Lloyd George having said that the last hundred million would win the war, the British treasury has issued an edict to the effect that during the struggle the gates shall be closed to all foreign applicants for loans, other than those associated with her in the campaign against Germany.

This is one of the most revolutionary policies ever adopted by the British Government. It gives the United States the opportunity and the entering wedge which she has been without and never could have taken advantage of, had she had them, until now. It is much more important that we nourish this seed that has been sown for us here than that we give up our whole time to the exploitation of trade advantages accruing to us because of the fact that competitors are now flat on their backs. We can pummel them to our hearts' content without retaliation, but how will it be when they regain their strengths?

#### OUR EQUIPMENT TO ENTER FOREIGN TRADE

Economists in England see plainly what America can do if she cares to exert herself, and already they are crying out against the sacrifice by Great Britain of her dearly bought markets.

It is an axiom that trade follows capital more freely than the flag. The science of



foreign investment which Great Britain and Germany have applied so successfully has been ineffectually carried out in this country because of the lack of a surplus of capital for investment abroad and an unwillingness on the part of producers to meet the requirements of the foreign buyer of merchandise. To-day we have, for the first time, the three great requisites to permanent entrance into foreign commercial fields, viz., a huge monthly credit balance, which may reach billion-dollar proportions in a year; freedom from competition from the most successful European sales agents, and a large unemployed plant capacity. More than this, we have the reputation of having gone through the financial crisis of last year without declaring a moratorium, whereas the markets of London and Paris were closed for months against the outside creditor. It will take years for these two great money centers to live down the stigma of a prolonged suspension of debt payments. Meanwhile, the reputation of the United States has been greatly strengthened by the way in which our bankers anticipated all maturing debts to Europe, and even when exchange was quoted at most prohibitive prices they accumulated sufficient supplies to insure the prompt liquidation of all obligations. No other country of similar position can claim as much.

#### WHERE WILL AMERICAN CAPITAL GO?

While we may not become the sole bankers of Argentina, Brazil, and Canada, we shall henceforth share with others in the fruits of those new fields. To-day Canada is absolutely dependent on the United States for such new capital as she needs. Funds have already been advanced to her leading railroad and to her chief cities and provinces. Canada has been buying over \$400,000,000 a year here, and if we are to hold this trade her securities must find a resting place in the boxes of American investors. To August 1 last year Great Britain had loaned the Dominion \$220,000,000, and the annual average for several years has been over \$250,000,000. In the same period she had provided Argentina with \$70,000,000 and Brazil with \$35,000,000, and normally would invest from \$200,000,000 to \$250,000,000 a year in the South American Republics. The additional countries into which American capital is most likely to go, both while the English, German, and French markets are closed and thereafter, are Russia, China, Spain, and Turkey in Asia. Indi-

rectly we are now assisting Japan by taking back in large volume her bonds held in Germany since 1905, repurchasing them about 20 per cent. lower than eager Germans bid for them ten years ago.

#### TRADE WITH SOUTH AMERICA

Foreign trade is a growth of years. Great progress cannot be made in a few months in establishing American markets where they had not been known before. The natural first thought of the exporter, when it was seen that British and German traders would be at a disadvantage, was to strike for South America. We have been getting only 15 per cent. of the inbound trade of Argentina and Brazil and 13 per cent. of that of Chile, although the exports of Brazil to the United States were nearly 40 per cent. of her entire sales and those of the other Republics much out of proportion to imports. So long, however, as this country did not or could not export dollars to South America her sales agents were at a disadvantage, even though they could speak the language and meet the peculiar requirements of credit, merchandising, and shipping.

Up to date the growth of the trade of North America with South America has been disappointingly small, and critics say that we have once more missed our opportunity. This is not a fair judgment in the matter. Conditions in South America for a year have not favored any seller of goods. Before the war a financial crisis in Brazil was foreseen, while the effects of over-extension in Argentina were known to be serious. Being young countries, they grow only as they can obtain new capital. Before they can buy merchandise they must sell their raw products or foodstuffs. With their bankers unable to help them, and the purchasing power of their regular customers crippled, and, in addition, shipping made hazardous by an active German fleet in South American waters, the trade of the Republics very nearly collapsed. It is estimated that imports into South American countries since the war began have decreased several hundred millions and to Argentina by \$100,000,000. Those from the United States to Argentina and Brazil for five months, August to December 31, were \$17,500,000 compared with \$38,500,000 in the same period of 1913. To other republics the percentage of decrease was about the same.

American exporters and American bankers have not been frightened by the temporary lack of South American markets. Already

two branches of the most powerful national bank in the United States have been established, one in Buenos Aires and the other in Rio de Janeiro, and drafts are being drawn direct from these capitals on New York which formerly went a round-about-way via London. More sensible exploitation of American goods has been made in South America in the last four months than during the last five years. A considerable percentage of the present advantage of American manufacturers in supplying South Americans with what they want must result in permanent custom for them, even though this country will be under the disadvantage for years yet of small capital outlays as compared with Great Britain and Germany.

#### A FORMER "AMERICAN INVASION" OF EUROPE

Foreign trade opportunities similar to those now existing were responsible for the so-called "American invasion" of Europe in 1900 and 1901. We then had large surplus holdings of grain and a very great surplus of manufacturing plant capacity. In 1900 the foreign trade balance of the United States reached the unprecedented figure of \$648,000,000. New York was to take from London its rank as the money center of the universe. This country was to translate itself immediately from a debtor to a creditor position. In the two years following the excess of exports over imports decreased \$150,000,000, and it was not until 1913 that it finally surpassed the 1900 figure and exceeded \$692,000,000. Last year the balance was down to \$325,000,000, the smallest, with the exceptions of 1909 and 1910, in nearly twenty years.

#### THE BALANCE IN OUR FAVOR

Having in eight months of this fiscal year, the first two of which produced a debit, established a net credit in foreign trade operations of \$500,000,000, it is reasonable to anticipate a balance of approximately \$1,000,000,000 for the fiscal year to June 30, and for the calendar year 1915 of \$1,250,000,000, or nearly twice that of 1900. Supplementing this will be a saving of fully \$100,000,000 in tourist expenditures, of another \$100,000,000 in remittances of aliens, for the foreigners are depositors in our postal savings banks now, where formerly they sent their surplus funds home, and \$25,000,000 to

\$40,000,000 in interest and dividend payments on bonds and stocks repurchased from European holders. Charges for freight and for insurance will be higher, though even here the reduction in imports offsets to a considerable extent the higher outgoing charges, most of which the receiver of the goods at a foreign port pays. In all, a credit of nearly one and a half billion dollars is possible for the twelve months ending on December 31.

At other times, when all of our I. O. U.'s to Europe were canceled, no one seriously feared us commercially or financially. The American banking system was scoffed at and American business methods were under suspicion. To-day both are respected. The credit of American railroads has been immensely helped by the recent Interstate Commerce decision. In every way we are better able to hold what we have recently gained in financial prestige.

#### DEMANDS ON AMERICAN EFFICIENCY

The situation is not, however, without its dangers and its probable disappointments. It is an American tendency to rush for the immediate opportunity or profit and neglect the field of greater permanent success. One of the most careful students of foreign trade in this country has already given warning against "overriding those markets which Great Britain and Germany have cultivated" and in which our participation represents "economic waste." There are trade lines that are irresistibly opposed to outside interference. It may not pay to meddle with them even for the temporary gain offered.

It will be after the war and not during its progress that the great test of American commercial and financial policies will be made. Then a fair field for all competitors will be reopened. The nations that have been fighting each other will not be so exhausted but that they can produce in sufficient quantity to bid for outside contracts, and, if what is already taking place among neutral nations holds good with industrial England and Germany, the products of those countries will be offered here and in every other market of the world at prices which will demand the highest American efficiency in production and distribution to meet. This is the day against which preparation should now be made.



# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## NEUTRAL SHIPPING IN WAR TIME

ON the subject of possible differences between the United States Government and Great Britain regarding the search of ships for contraband and the transfer of ships from the American flag, Sir Gilbert Parker, the novelist and Member of Parliament, has stated for the New York *World* his personal conception of the British case. He begins by reminding his readers that in our own Civil War, as also in the Spanish-American War, the United States itself was obliged to search the ships of neutral powers and to question sharply transfers that were made from one flag to another. It is a matter of history that neutral nations have always been vexed by any attempted limitation of their commerce or of the absolute freedom of their ships to roam the ocean at will.

As to the conduct of the British Navy in this war, it is controlled, just as other navies in other wars have been controlled, by international rules; and these rules are not the product of any so-called navalism, but have been slowly formulated and based upon long-existing precedents. British naval predominance in this war, says Sir Gilbert Parker, affects neutral nations only as well-established rules of war have always done in regard to contraband and the transfer of ships. The principles underlying the Declaration of London and its codified rules control the rights of Great Britain in her interference with the shipping of neutral nations.

So far as the recent issue between Great Britain and the United States is concerned, it is not a question of the cargo, but of the ship. England has offered to deliver the cargo to neutral ports. It is only the question of the purchase and transfer of an enemy's ship that is raised. The right of the United States Government to purchase interned German ships in American ports is not disputed, and Sir Gilbert Parker implies that a bona fide purchase of that kind would be recognized by Great Britain as within the rules of war. But the right of these ships, if purchased in this way, to carry cotton to Germany would be contested.

Since the German Government has declared that it has commandeered all the food of the country, it must be assumed that every cargo of food entering Germany becomes, in effect, the property of the government, which has the power of releasing such food for the use of the civil population, or of retaining it for consumption by the military forces. According to the Declaration of London, conditional contraband is liable to capture if proved to be destined for the armed forces of a government enemy state, unless the enemy state shows that it cannot be used for the war in progress. Sir Gilbert Parker calls attention to the language here used,—“cannot,” not “will not.” Germany commandeers all the food of the country and there can no longer exist the presumption that the food will surely go to the civil population. Therefore, the burden of proof is on the shipper to show that his particular cargo will be released for the civil population.

Sir Gilbert Parker declares, in conclusion, that serious trouble between the two countries over these matters is unthinkable. He denies that there is any crisis in the relations between the governments, and expresses the conviction that the whole difficulty may be settled by official diplomacy, provided public sentiment will find its basis in facts.

### Government Purchase of German Ships

In *Bench and Bar*, there is an interesting discussion of the “Transfer of Merchant Vessels During the War,” by Archibald R. Watson, former Corporation Counsel of New York City. In opposition to Senator Root, who had denied the legality of the transfer of vessels owned by belligerents to a neutral nation in time of war, Mr. Watson maintains that the law, as it stands, gives ample authority for the United States Government to purchase interned German vessels, providing, of course, such purchases are bona fide, and not made with an understanding that the Germans will be allowed to repurchase at the end of the war. Every Attorney-General of the United States, says

Mr. Watson, and every Secretary of State for more than half a century past, before whom the question has come, has seemed to agree upon the proposition as stated by Attorney-General Cushing made in 1854, when it was said:

A citizen of the United States may purchase a ship of a belligerent power at home or abroad, in a belligerent port or on the high seas, provided the purchase be made bona fide, and the property be passed absolutely and without reserve; and the ship so purchased becomes entitled to bear the flag and receive the protection of the United States. (Vol. VI, Opinions Attorney-General, 638.)

Mr. Watson also cites an opinion of the Hon. William M. Evarts, who was Attorney-General before he became Secretary of State, to this effect:

The right of Americans to buy foreign-built vessels and to carry on commerce with them is clear and undoubted. . . . As a consequence, an adjunct of this right, that of flying the American flag, cannot be prohibited. If circumstances justify on the part of the Consular officers an opinion that the sale is honest, and that the vessel has really become the property of a citizen of the United States, she may properly fly the flag of the owner's country, as an indication of such ownership and as an emblem of the owner's nationality.

Still later, in the case of the *Benito Estenger* (177 U. S., 568), Chief Justice Fuller said:

Transfers of vessels *flagrante bello* were originally held invalid, but the rule has been modified, and is thus given by Mr. Hall, who, stating that in France their sale is forbidden, and are declared

to be prize in all cases in which they have been transferred by neutrals after the buyers could have knowledge of the outbreak of war, says: "In England and the United States the right to purchase vessels is in principle admitted, they being in themselves legitimate objects of trade as fully as any other kind of merchandise, but, the practise of fraud being great, the circumstances attending a sale are severely scrutinized, and the transfer is not held to be good, if it is subjected to any condition or tacit understanding by which the vendor keeps an interest in the vessel, or its profits, control over it, and power of revocation or a right to its restoration at the conclusion of war."

According to the conclusions arrived at by the delegates to the International Naval Conference held at London, from December 4, 1908, to January 6, 1909, a transfer of a belligerent vessel to a neutral flag after the outbreak of hostilities would be deemed wrong unless shown not to have been made "in order to evade the consequences to which an enemy vessel, as such, is exposed." This is Mr. Watson's comment on the provision in question:

Can it reasonably be said, taking a concrete example, that a German steamer now lying at her dock in Hoboken is "exposed" to capture by the British? Undoubtedly such a vessel would be "exposed" to capture if "as such," that is, if as "an enemy vessel," she attempted to navigate the high seas. But as a neutral vessel, flying the stars and stripes, she is *not* an enemy vessel, and consequently not liable to capture as such, nor does the Declaration of London, as we understand it, so provide. Nor, if this be true, can it be said that a valid, unconditional, and complete sale of such a vessel, then proceeding to engage in neutral commerce, was made to "evade" the consequences to which an "enemy vessel, as such, is exposed."

## CONTRABAND, ABSOLUTE AND CONDITIONAL

THERE has not been for a century past so widespread a discussion of contraband and the various issues arising from it as the world has witnessed since the outbreak of the present war. It is a question that concerns belligerents and neutrals alike, and can be settled only by reference to the recognized canons of international law. Several helpful expositions of the principles involved in the discussion have been published during the last few months. One of these, a communication entitled "Are Foodstuffs Contraband of War?" by Harley W. Nehf, appeared in the *Annals of the American Academy* (Philadelphia) for November last, and more re-

cently an article on "Neutral Rights and Duties" was contributed to the February *North American Review* by Mr. C. T. Revere.

Each of these articles recognizes the classification of goods formulated by Grotius: contraband,—those articles which are of use chiefly or only in war; non-contraband,—those which are of no use in war; conditional contraband,—those that are useful both in war and in peace. The Declaration of London which was drawn up by the naval conference in 1909, added a fourth group to consist of those articles which may be made contraband by special declaration of the belligerents.



In the *Annals* article, to which we have alluded, Mr. Nehf names, among his illustrations of contraband articles, saddle, draught and pack animals suitable for military operation. In his list of articles conditionally contraband he includes foodstuffs, forage, clothing suitable for soldiers, gold and silver, vehicles, vessels, flying machines, fuel, powder not specially prepared for war, telegraphs, telephones, and material for building railways. Among the articles not contraband Mr. Nehf includes raw materials of the textile industries, rubber, metallic ores, paper, agricultural and textile machinery, precious stones and furniture.

As to the general principle of this classification there is no controversy. It is only when specific articles are added to the list of absolute contraband that difficulties arise. As Mr. Revere points out, no two treaties between different nations agree exactly on the list of articles which shall be regarded as contraband or innocent. With the advance in industry, military necessities have changed.

At the time of the Peace of Utrecht not a thought was given to copper products, but as a result of our electrical development, these have become noxious articles. In the days of sailing vessels "naval stores," *i. e.*, resin, turpentine, etc., were important items in the contraband list. As the steamship replaced the sailing vessel they lost their illegal character. But in the present war, resin and turpentine are back on the contraband list, not as naval stores, but as ingredients for explosives.

In Mr. Revere's opinion the likelihood of any definite and final agreement on the contraband list seems to be precluded by the essential nature of the problem. Conditions are changing so rapidly that restriction by specific articles might prove highly injurious to a belligerent.

On the other hand, an undue extension of the contraband list may result practically in a blockade. Precedent in international law is strongly against such an advantage for a belligerent who holds command of the sea. The tendency is toward the view that if one belligerent decides to shut off the enemy from commerce, an effective blockade must be maintained. A blockade of an effective character is both dangerous and expensive, and the hostile who attempts it is entitled to the fruits of his effort. Any student of warfare can see at a glance the risk attendant upon a blockade of Hamburg and Bremen. On the other hand, it would be comparatively easy, by stopping neutral vessels at Gibraltar, Suez, the English Channel, and the entrance to the North Sea, to prevent any shipment whatever from reaching the Germanic allies.

Neutrals, however, can and do insist strongly

that the contraband list shall not be extended unduly beyond the "criterion of warlike usefulness." The privilege must not be used as a weapon against the civil population of the enemy country. Articles like foodstuffs are noxious only when destined to the naval or military forces of the foe. A recent instance of this was furnished by our protest in 1904 over Russia's seizures of rice shipments to Japan. The most notable example, however, was furnished by our controversy with Great Britain in 1793, when an attempt was made to block all shipments of grain to France in an effort to reduce that country "to reasonable terms of peace."

Jefferson, then Secretary of State, declared that the position that provisions were contraband "in the case where the depriving an enemy of these supplies is one of the means intended to be employed for reducing him to reasonable terms of peace," or in any case but that of a place actually blockaded, was "entirely new"; that reason and usage had established "that, when two nations go to war, those who choose to live in peace retain their natural right to pursue their agriculture, manufactures, and other ordinary vocations; to carry the produce of their industry, for exchange, to all nations, belligerent or neutral, as usual; to go and come freely, without injury or molestation; and, in short, that the war among others shall be, for them, as if it did not exist."

The character of the merchandise, however, is only one phase of the consideration of contraband. The destination of the merchandise has given to belligerents even more trouble than the character of the shipments. Although belligerents are always inclined to press their case against a neutral on the mere suspicion that the destination of the shipment of goods is hostile, precedent is quite clear upon the point that there must be proof, very strong if circumstantial, that the destination is illegal in order to justify seizure. The mere fact that contraband trade may have been general with a certain port gives no ground for action in a specific instance.

While admitting that prize-court decisions in general have been marked by a broad equity, Mr. Revere contends that, despite the eventual justice of the prize court, the harm done to neutral commerce can never be measured by the compensation afforded by belligerents. "Damages may be awarded for illegal seizures and detentions, but no reparation is offered for the paralysis that is visited upon trade. Commerce suffers more through the cargoes that are not shipped than from those that are captured."

Mr. Revere feels justified in the prophecy that something will be done after the war is over to modify the rules of conduct relating to the clash of neutral and belligerent interests. It may at least be expected that some new principle will be added to the code of international law.

# WHO WILL PROFIT BY THE WAR?

IT is to stamp out the curse of war that "our men kill and are being killed, for the ultimate object of the conflict now raging is the destruction of militarism." So writes the Viscount Georges d'Avenel, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (January 15). Going on to develop his subject, he says:

It is considered by many wise men a dream never to be realized, but, even to the end of the world it will hold true, that anyone who sees great things coming twenty-four hours before the rest of mankind will be put down as a visionary if not a positive fool.

He points out further that no one can calculate or predict what the results of the present conflict may be. For no one can discount the forces that sway peoples.

If material interests alone were to be considered, one might arrive at plausible conclusions, but where the passions enter into play, predictions are well nigh impossible, for peoples are influenced by their passions far more than they are guided by material considerations.

The more complex the conditions of modern life the greater the shock consequent upon the abrupt interruption of its accustomed course. In the days of the epic wars the spinning-wheel and the loom continued to work in the villages, for the wool and the flax grew at the very doors of the spinners, and the products were easily disposed of in the markets of the neighboring cities. But in our day a few hours are enough to dislocate the whole order of things, machines stop, manufacturing is suspended, and transportation and shipping are very materially affected, while the working masses find themselves suddenly plunged into a state of distress which was unknown in the less "advanced" age of their ancestors. The modern world is like a house lighted by electricity. One defective wire is sufficient to cause total darkness. The more complex civilization becomes the more it is at the mercy of mere accidents. In proportion as the bonds between nations become stronger, so do the shocks that affect them become more quickly and deeply felt.

This solidarity, he maintains, between peoples is "growing in spite of us. It is not due to the conscious act of any man, nor can the will of any man check its growth."

The belligerents in this war, he goes on to say, are suffering from the ills that they inflict, although perhaps in a less degree than do their enemies. But they are suffering, nevertheless. The neutrals suffer also far more than they profit by the temporary closing of competitive markets. Those who cannot buy are losers as well as those who cannot sell. While France stood in dire need of petroleum, the oil was overflowing

in the reservoirs of the United States, and the producers of cotton in the new world stood helpless before an unprecedented harvest, while the textile mills of the old were closed for want of raw material. The currency panic caused by the war extended over the globe and closed the stock exchanges for months together. This condition of paralysis in national life affects agriculture far less than it does industry. Consequently each country suffers in just the proportion that its population is industrial or agricultural. Germany is clearly in the first class, for she has thrown the bulk of her wealth into industrial development.

In direct answer to the question of "Who will gain by this war?" the Viscount d'Avenel says:

Whatever the total sum of the indemnity, the price of the war even for the victorious Allies will represent an enormous loss if it is not followed by a general disarmament. Victory in itself will not be a gain if Europe, whatever the changes in the map of the continent, continues to be an armed camp, because the victory of the Allies had not been sufficiently decisive. There would result no material or radical economic changes, and the burden of militarism would continue to weigh as heavily upon the whole world.

During the last years of the "armed peace" the great powers spent the enormous sum of 10,000,000,000 of francs for military purposes. Think how different things would be if this vast sum of money, instead of serving in a work of destruction, were applied to the development of the natural resources of the globe. Consider the value of the millions of men who compose the armies, who might henceforth be employed in increasing the productiveness of the soil. Europe would not be long in repairing the damages of the war and in healing her wounds, and the whole world would benefit by her prosperity could disarmament be brought about.

It is therefore the whole world that is to gain by this war if the Allies are victorious, he insists.

"But, if disarmament is the only solution worth while," concludes the Viscount d'Avenel, "it is also the most difficult to bring about. Germany would resign herself to this only *in extremis*. Germany will fight with all the strength of desperation before she gives up her militarism, which alone would make the dream of future successes possible. And just because of this fact, disarmament will be the hardest and costliest solution to obtain. But whatever the price paid for it,—for any victory without it would be no victory at all,—the generation to come will never think the price too great."



## A GERMAN ECONOMIST ON CONDITIONS IN WAR TIME

THROUGHOUT the world the economic balance has been greatly disturbed by the present war. This disturbance is, of course, greatest in the countries actually engaged in the struggle. Hence it is particularly interesting to find a keen analysis of the economic situation in Germany created by this vast upheaval. The analysis we refer to is from the able pen of Werner Sombart, who is one of the leading authorities in Germany on economic questions and incumbent of the chair of National Economics at the University of Berlin. Professor Sombart's article appears in a recent number of the *Internationale Monatsschrift* (Berlin). He considers, first, the alterations directly effected by a state of war:

1. The most important thing, naturally, is the cessation of a large amount of work accomplished in times of peace by the wage-earners now called to the colors. We do not know just how many of these there are, but it is estimated that the number is not far from a third of the total male wage-earning population (in 1907 this comprised 18,000,000 in round numbers). If we compare this with the figures of former wars,—in '70-'71 there were about a million and a half men under arms, comprising something like one-eighth of the male wage-earners,—we see that never before has such a vast external disturbance affected the economic life of a people.

2. There is the requisition of horses amounting undoubtedly to from one-quarter to one-third of all our horses.

3. The closing of the railroads to freight and passenger traffic in the first weeks of the war.

4. The interruption of foreign trade relations. The amount of this can be estimated pretty closely by reckoning the exchange of goods which goes on in time of peace with the countries now at war. According to this, our trade with Belgium, France, Russia, Great Britain, and Japan (quite aside from that with Serbia, Montenegro, and Monaco) is, in round numbers, four-tenths of our entire trade. Besides this, many goods cannot be exchanged with neutral countries because their export is forbidden. Moreover, the confusion due to war renders over-sea traffic extremely difficult. Hence we may consider that far more than half of our foreign business has been interrupted by the war.

Dr. Sombart divides these disturbances into two categories: those that interfere with the mechanism or "form" of economic conditions, and those that interfere with their substance. By substance he understands the raw materials and the labor which together constitute the means of livelihood of the populace, while the mechanism has reference to the whole complex system of markets and

credits by which trade is conducted. Obviously the welfare of a nation suffers directly from any contraction or disturbance of either material supplies or the mechanism by which these are distributed. He illustrates this by the following simple figure:

Flour can be ground only on condition, first, that enough grain is fed into the mill, and, secondly, that the mill is rightly run.

He next considers the actual manner in which war interferes with industrial conditions. For example, thirty men may be drafted from the force of a factory. Not only does the factory lose their own labor, but, because the chain is broken, the whole force may have to stop work. Or again, suppose the supply of raw material falls short,—he instances cotton, of which Germany's annual import has been worth \$150,000,000,—the same result comes to pass, the whole force must be laid off. Such disturbances are much more far-reaching in their effects than at any previous time because organization is more elaborate and complex. Then, too, in 1870 the agricultural population predominated, whereas now the industrial population is in excess. Moreover, in former times producers were more or less independent hand-craftsmen, whereas now they are factory hands.

If one of two independent shoemakers is called to bear arms the other can quietly continue his trade. But if the cutters and sole-stitchers are called away from a shoe factory, the finishers must stop work also. However, it is not these disturbances of production that Professor Sombart considers the heaviest industrial ills produced by war. Even worse, perhaps, is the stagnation of the market. And the more highly organized and differentiated business is, the worse are the effects of this stagnation. If, for example, there is an interdependence between three concerns, the loss of marketing opportunities by one immediately affects the other two. In the same way if thirty concerns are connected a stagnation of sales of the finished product means stagnation all along the line.

Such stoppage of sales must occur because so many groups of buyers fall out of line. First, the soldiers at the front; second, domestic manufacturers, who cease buying raw materials on the one hand and curtail their purchases as private individuals on the other; third, the foreign pur-

chaser of our exports. But, naturally, every buyer who falls out implies a corresponding decrease of power to buy in turn on the part of the seller, and so it goes. But the circulation of goods stagnates not only because so many men cannot buy, but very often, also, because so many will not buy, although able to do so. . . . Thus accumulate the causes which have a tendency to bring about a stoppage of the mechanism of business. And the most highly paradoxical result of the outbreak of war is that millions of men are in danger of being thrown out of work for no other reason than because so many millions have already stopped working.

Having thus set the situation before us, Dr. Sombart proceeds to discuss such remedial measures as are possible. Some of the dangers are at least in part self-remedial. Thus as soon as mobilization was complete, traffic conditions tended to right themselves; trade with neutral countries likewise began to recover from its first shock; and finally the "temper" or "*Stimmung*" of the people, he tells us, has become more favorable to the resumption of normal conditions. There is more of a desire to buy in various circles, and this will extend into wider areas "if we continue to be victorious." "Already," he says, "the ladies have begun to think again about their toilets; again the public is attending theaters, concerts and lectures; the business men are beginning to advertise again, and the newspapers,—grown alas! so lean,—are slowly beginning to fatten up a bit." He reminds us too that the war "heals some of its own wounds." Thus there is a demand for all sorts of goods for the army, and these are provided not only by government funds, but by the immense subscription funds which have been collected by all sorts of official and semi-official bodies.

Already we hear that many branches of production,—those that serve immediately the needs of the army and the war,—are in full swing. This has an immediate economic influence; these factories become purchasers of raw materials, accessory materials and machines; their workmen become the customers of innkeepers, shopkeepers, etc., and these, in their turn, are able to increase their purchasing.

However, at present, there is still much of damage and evil condition, which can only be conquered by a purposeful effort,—and since the outbreak of the war there have been,—at least with us in Germany,—efforts to that end with admirable forethought, firmness, and perseverance.

This fight against the foes of our economic system is twofold: against the threatened breaks in the economic circuit, and against threatened impoverishment in material supplies and in energies . . . and to carry on the fight we have three armies ready: 1. The public and semi-public bodies (state, province, municipality, insurance organizations, etc.). 2. The business world. 3. The general public.

Space fails us to give in detail Dr. Sombart's account of the endeavors of these three "armies." He gives the highest praise possible to the Reichsbank for its able support of the system of credit and the way it has borne the enormous burden caused by the strain on credit with only a few alterations of the banking laws. He emphasizes the fact that Germany is the only one of the warring nations which has managed to get along without declaring a general moratorium. He has high praise, too, for the way the government has handled the question of providing the people with food supplies and raw materials without allowing private interests to charge exorbitant prices. Many communities and districts have bought up large quantities of food supplies in order to supply them to needy individuals at moderate prices.

He expresses the belief that the government will succeed in handling the grave question of unemployment satisfactorily. He finds, too, that government measures are being supported by the commercial world. Many business men, for example, have shown their public spirit by such methods as keeping their plants running in spite of the slackness of the market, by continuing to pay the wages of their employees who have gone to the front, by extending credit, etc. In many places, as Berlin and Hamburg, the business men have combined to establish War Credit funds, which have been useful to the men engaged in big enterprises just as ordinary loan funds have been to the smaller men.

With regard to the general public, Dr. Sombart is less complacent, at any rate as regards its early attitude. Among its sins against the general economic welfare he enumerates the following: The unnecessary laying in of stores of provisions; the hoarding of cash; too much "saving" when not enforced by necessity; the discharging of servants; the stopping lessons, etc. (again in those cases when not necessitated); the failure to pay debts; urgent demands upon debtors; the doing of work for nothing which might have been done at a living wage by one of the unemployed.

On the whole, he finds the situation not so bad as might have been expected:

We should have thought a world war would stop the economic machinery entirely. But we now see there is no danger of this. . . . And it is not to be thought that the future will make things essentially worse. The greatest injury we suffer, naturally, is the break in our relations with foreign lands. But even this is not necessarily fatal. In any event, we have enough food in the country to live on. The raw materials for some of the



most important industries . . . we can surely get through neutral states . . . e. g., Swedish iron ore. Other things, such as copper, wool, and cotton, we hope to obtain by way of neutral countries. Presumably England's efforts to have them declared contraband will be successfully controverted by America, who is so strongly interested in their export.

In conclusion Professor Sombart declares that instead of shattering all theories of the economists the war has demonstrated that it may be classified under the rubric of a "simple crisis of stagnation of the markets," and that the resultant damage has been less than was expected. He points out certain lessons that the economists have learned: "that the

capitalistic status may be interrupted at desired points by governmental initiative without public economy being injured thereby. We have seen with astonishment that a not unessential part of the conduct of economic affairs has been taken over by government authorities. We have had the experience of having exports forbidden by the state as it sees fit, of having maximum prices established, of having the supplies of merchants and manufacturers brought under control, of having magazines established, of production regulated at its will (the distilleries! the slaughter houses!) and more of the same sort of measures."

## GERMAN IDEALISM AND THE WAR

THE celebrated German writer, Professor Rudolf Eucken, whose letter to Americans anent the European war recently aroused so much controversial interest, has published in a recent number of the *Illustrirte Zeitung* some philosophical reflections upon the war and idealism which are of interest as showing the view taken in Germany in regard to certain points at issue.

After speaking of the very different aspect of the Christmastide of 1914 from that of happier years and commenting upon the violent upheavals which will make that year forever memorable, he says:

Such incessant agitation holds no small danger,—the danger of a crumbling of life into mere single detached moments, the danger of a blunting of our emotions and a fatiguing of our souls; stronger and stronger grows the need of stepping back a few paces from these separate events and experiences and grasping as a whole the things that have happened. This may help us to preserve that strength of soul and cheerful courage so stringently demanded by the present and the future. . . .

This year has brought us experiences both sad and joyous; the sad, fortunately, are from without and the joyful from within. There has been a notable swing of the pendulum with regard to our relations with foreign countries. We were justified that we possessed, if not the love, at any rate the esteem of the great majority of nations; now we are not only forced to suffer the envy and hate of our direct opponents, but even among neutral peoples so much disaffection against us has been displayed, such unwillingness and inability to put themselves in our place, that it is very clearly shown how foreign we have remained to the others despite all external points of contact.

For example we had recently established a multiplicity of cultural bonds with America and now there come to us thence overwhelming expressions of hostile nature. We also had believed ourselves to be in a close community of culture with French Switzerland, yet now Geneva seems

to have become (in defiance of Swiss neutrality) a very focus of agitation against Germany.

But while such misunderstanding and such passion rages against us in the outside world, we need have no fear, for this year has shown a mighty strength in the German people, a strength that none of its foes would have dreamed of attributing to it.

This strength Professor Eucken finds in the united feeling of the people, the abandonment of selfish aims and partisan feeling and the boundless readiness for self-sacrifice. He declares proudly that the Germans have shown themselves a nation of heroes, first in the soldiers, who with "a wonderful blending of courageous spirit and technical ability have bravely and victoriously met the onslaught of half a world," and secondly in the populace who have supported them spiritually and materially. He continues:

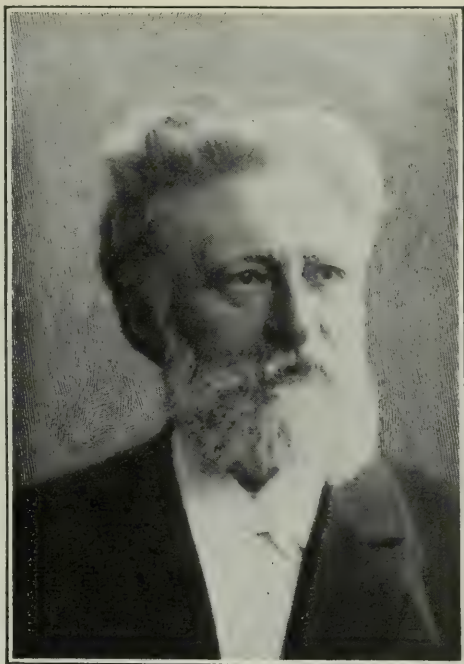
The war was forced upon our people by foes who, envious of our growing greatness, have long cherished sinister plans; even if the war could have been avoided now it was bound to come in a few years, and in that case conditions would have been less favorable to us. Thus the struggle came upon us as an unavoidable necessity. But we did not accept this necessity with sighs and groans . . . we immediately transformed fate into the deed of our own free will. And we have done this all the more because in this struggle we have wagered the highest conceivable stake. For it is not this or that particular point that has put us at discord with our opponents; but our whole national and political entity has become an offense to them. Since, therefore, they would fain annihilate, or at least deeply humiliate us, we find ourselves drawn into a fight for our very existence as a nation.

As this whole position was new and the weapons forged against us hitherto unheard of, the past can offer us no counsel; we must stand on our own feet, discover new paths, set free new forces . . . our life has broken the chains of the past

and stands wholly in the present. In this present the past and future meet,—on the one hand we must preserve the things of value aforesaid won, on the other we must lay a secure foundation for the future.

In all this we recognize by means of the deed the belief in the capability of humanity to be raised to a higher level, in the power of original creativeness, in the superiority of spiritual power to mere fate, and are uplifted into a realm of freedom.

It is this which Dr. Eucken calls Idealism in the Form of Life. The ideal of the Fatherland is, to-day, as never before, he says, the center of living and striving, no more a mere abstraction but a living reality in terms of flesh and blood. Closely knit with this struggle to maintain the Fatherland as a living and spiritual entity is the anxious care to preserve and strengthen the individuality of the German *Kultur*, and he declares solemnly that it is not a dream of power and conquest which inspires this, but rather the earnest aim to bring to their full flower the peculiar intellectual gifts implanted by nature and developed by their history in the Germans, for the sake of humanity as well as for themselves. However, this lofty purpose seems to be meant rather for posterity, since the good professor is distinctly pessimistic about present-day humanity (except



DR. RUDOLF EUCKEN

in the Fatherland!), and closes with further bitter remarks about envy and hate, malice and slander.

## THE FORTRESS IN MODERN WARFARE

EUROPEAN scientific journals have been variously affected by the war. German publications, as a rule, have preserved very nearly their normal scope and appearance. Many of them, in fact, give no token of the exceptional state of public affairs now prevailing, apart from the sinister record, month by month, of the death on the western or eastern battlefields of brilliant young professors and privat-docents, many of whom are mourned throughout the world. The English journals have also generally pursued the even tenor of their way, though their contents are somewhat more strongly tinged by contemporary events.

On the other hand, many of the French scientific periodicals have been transformed by the war. This is most conspicuously true of the leading French journal of popular science, *La Nature*. This well-known weekly was suspended at the outbreak of hostilities, on account of the fact that most of its literary and mechanical staff had been called to the colors. Since it resumed publication, toward the end of last year, it has been almost en-

tirely concerned with those branches of science and art bearing directly upon warfare in general and the present conflict in particular, together with various subsidiary topics.

A recent number of this journal undertakes to explain the surprising facility with which the German siege artillery demolished the "impregnable" fortresses of France and Belgium, and to forecast the manner in which, in the light of such occurrences, the defense of towns will be conducted in the future. We read:

In explaining these disasters it has been customary to invoke the exceptional power of certain ultra-secret engines, such as the Krupp mortar of 420 millimeters or the Austrian of 305 millimeters. As a matter of fact, they should be attributed to much simpler causes. Until within a few years a siege gun could be brought into action only after a very solid wooden platform had been erected to support it during its discharge, and the laborious construction of this platform could not escape the notice of the besieged. Thus the artillery of the fortress had ample time to open fire and prevent its installation. Indeed, the defenders might cherish the hope of prolonging for a considerable time,





ARMORED CUPOLA OF A MAUBEUGE FORT WRECKED BY A GERMAN SHELL

with the aid of searchlights, captive balloons, and other modes of observation, the period of investment during which they would have an incontestable superiority in artillery. The advent of shells containing very powerful charges of explosives was not, in itself, calculated to disturb seriously the equanimity of the besieged, as these shells could not be thrown in large numbers until many batteries had been installed and provisioned, and the artillery of the fortress could see to it that this eventuality was more or less indefinitely postponed.

The appearance of *rapid-fire* heavy artillery was destined to alter the situation completely. With the facilities for transportation offered by motor tractors and the facilities for rapid firing offered by the modern gun-carriage, a siege battery can to-day approach a fortress under suitable cover, be installed in a favorable location in less than ten minutes, and open fire almost immediately. Before the besieged can get the range it will have landed its projectiles in some part of the fortifications, destroyed the metal and concrete roofs, and rendered the place uninhabitable through the effect of the deleterious gases produced by the explosion of melinite bombs in the narrow courts on which the casemates open.

Whether these projectiles weigh 40, 120, 340, or nearly 1000 kilograms is immaterial. Provided they split open the casemates, overturn the parapets, demolish the turrets, and asphyxiate the garrison, all resistance will become impossible, and the infantry of the besiegers will be able to approach the glacis with impunity and capture the fort, after penetrating the densest wire entanglements almost without striking a blow. Only the effective fire of neighboring forts would be able to arrest their victorious assault, and what help is to be expected of these works if they are themselves subjected to an energetic bombardment?

Two ways out of the difficulty commend themselves to the attention of the military engineer. First, between the forts in the circle of defense about a town we must have

lines of trenches in which to dispose infantry whose business it will be to oppose an assaulting column. Second, the batteries of the defense should be as mobile as those of the attack, and thus ready to change their location as soon as they begin to suffer from the enemy's fire.

The only advantage henceforth left to the defense is the possibility of organizing well in advance lines of trenches for its infantry and numerous carefully hidden shelters for its guns. Roads, well screened from the observation of the attack, will, moreover, permit the rapid transportation of these guns from one shelter to another, while the enemy is wasting his efforts in delivering a crushing fire on points which are unoccupied.

Thus we see that the open order of fighting is as essential in the defense of a fortress as in operations in the field. The only difference that will subsist between a siege and a battle of the nature of those fought during the past few months is that the scene of conflict in the former case will be one already determined in time of peace by the necessity of ensuring the possession of some center of railways or other lines of communication, and that it will be possible to organize the defense at leisure; with trenches, numerous concrete shelters for the infantry reserves, artillery parapets well screened and judiciously distributed, hidden communicating roads, etc.

Moreover, this battlefield must be so planned that the defending troops cannot under any circumstances be caught between two fires. It must, therefore, have a breadth in all directions of at least 10 kilometers. If the center of the position is to remain immune from the effects of bombardment, the first line of defense will need to be placed and maintained at a distance of 10 kilometers therefrom. Hence, according to circumstances, it will be necessary to assume a circumference of 32 or 64 kilometers. Such extensive fronts can be defended only by veritable armies, and not by ordinary garrisons.

## SERVIA'S RESOURCES AND NEEDS

MME. SLAVKO GROUITCH, wife of the Secretary General of Foreign Affairs of Serbia, who was formerly Miss Mabel Dunlop, of West Virginia, arrived in America a few weeks ago from Belgrade to get generous Americans interested in supplying the Serbs who have been driven from their farms with seeds for planting and agricultural implements.

Servia is essentially an agricultural country, nine-tenths of the population being employed on the land. It was estimated recently that 308,000 families derive a living from agriculture, and of these 273,000 have their own land. The soil of Servia has no superior in fertility in all Europe. Two yearly crops of hay, wheat, and barley are grown; oats, hemp, and tobacco thrive, and several sorts of maize and the sugar beet. Grapes, sweetish but of excellent quality for the making of wine, give a good yield in some parts of the country, likewise the prune plum.

The Serb peasant provides for all his wants from his land, with the exception of a few articles like sugar and salt. Even the clothes he wears and the table linen for the family use are woven upon hand-loom in his house. The raising of cattle and hogs naturally is a staple industry. Farm animals before the war were plentiful; even the humblest landholder had pigs and poultry to run about under the plum trees that surround his peaked-roofed cottage. It will be seen from even a slight knowledge of the source of Servia's food supply that the wholesale destruction of agriculture by the Austrian invasions and the necessities of war, if not speedily remedied by the prompt giving of seeds and farming implements, will bring about a general famine in the devastated districts and great loss of life. Mme.

Grouitch, in a statement to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, has written eloquently of the needs of her adopted country.

As a result of the second Austrian invasion of Servia, her richest agricultural district lies a barren waste. Houses, barns, and granaries have been burned, livestock killed, or consumed, or driven away. During the first invasion, in the month of August, such frightful atrocities were perpetrated in all the villages of the invaded region, even those which were not in the battle line, that the terror-stricken inhabitants fled at the first rumor of a second war. Unable to carry anything with them, they all suffered horribly from the cold and distress. Hundreds of children died from the cold and exposure.

An eye-witness describes the scene:

Women, children, old men, cripples, hardly clothed, arrived at every railroad station where the trains, composed of open goods cars, took them to the region behind the lines of the Servian army. I have never seen such a huddled, miserable mass of humanity many of them with packs on their backs, women with children carried any way, the older ones helping the younger, all having marched for several days in terror and without food. Many women were insane. I shall never

forget the despair of one, a mother of six children, who, having lost them, was going about crying and calling their names.

The Servian Government not only transported these fugitives to places of safety, but erected sheds and tents for shelter, and a ration of bread and soup was given out to them each day, as to the soldiers. The Servian Red Cross has distributed clothing, blankets, and such other comforts as have been sent out by the British and American Red Cross and relief societies. Now that the country is freed from the enemy comes the necessity for sending these people back to their homes. To do this requires a whole organization, which the Servian Government, overwhelmed as it is by the difficulty of pro-



MADAME GROUITCH





WOUNDED SERB SOLDIERS

viding for its large army, which must be kept always on the defensive lest a new invasion take place, cannot provide. For that purpose committees have been organized in England and in America to obtain food, farming implements, grain, and seeds for planting, and, in fact, everything that can serve for the rehabilitation of this fugitive people.

The Serbian peasants own their homes, and each one knows exactly where he belongs, and whole caravans are even now marching across the country in an attempt to return to their homes, but there is still danger of their dying of starvation, as only those who are near the large military camps can be fed by the authorities. So that once material for relief has been collected, it will be necessary to have volunteers, especially those having some knowledge of agriculture, to go out and personally superintend the distribution of this material. It is hoped that young men and women from the agricultural colleges in America will feel that this is an excellent opportunity to apply the knowledge that they have gained in a perfectly virgin country, where scientific philanthropy can be demonstrated perhaps more perfectly than there was ever before an opportunity of doing in an agricultural way.

One would be glad to see agricultural relief units organized in exactly the same way that the Red Cross units have been organized, each unit prepared to look after a certain number of families in a given district, to aid the peasant-women farmers in the first work of ploughing and re-planting, as well as in seeing that no one suffers for lack of necessary food.

Women have always done a large part of the farm work in the Balkans, and have, during all three wars, taken a great pride in keeping the home and the farm going as perfectly as when the fathers, husbands, and brothers were present. During this last autumn, when the harvest was being got in, the writer frequently saw the peasant women cutting and stacking the corn late in the evening, and even by moonlight.

Many of the peasant soldiers in the hospitals regret the war for but one thing,—that it left this heavy burden of work upon the womenkind at a moment when they felt their place was at home.

Absolutely all the crops grown in any part of America can be grown in Serbia, where there is a rich alluvial soil watered by many streams. The women do, in addition to the field work, all the arts and crafts of primitive peoples. The hand-loom stands in every cottage, and weaving, hand embroidery, and lace-making are their recreations.

From official sources there are in Serbia, besides thousands of fugitives, some thousands of refugees from Bosnia and Herzegovina and other Slav provinces of Austria, especially many of the prisoners' families. Thousands of the families of Austrian prisoners in Serbia have fled from Austria into Serbia. The numbers of these refugees are stated as follows:

Belgrade (approximately).....	85,000
County of Belgrade.....	80,000
County of Podrinje.....	240,000
County of Valjevo.....	107,000
County of Ugiže.....	75,000
County of Rudnik.....	84,000

About 300,000 fugitives have returned to their homes, where they are in very great need owing to the destruction that has taken place, and the authorities have been obliged to forbid any more returning to their homes, owing to the impossibility of feeding and caring for them. This destitution increases every day, owing to the fact that in many parts of Serbia, not having such restriction, many have come to stay, so that whole districts are beginning to feel distress.

In times of peace the Serbian Coöperative Agricultural Association furnishes to farmers, at the lowest possible rates, live stock, seeds, and farm implements, and also introduces new vegetables. An excellent agricultural school is maintained at Kraljevo, and schools of viticulture at Smederov and Negotin. In a work on Serbia, written in 1910, by Herbert Vivian, there occurs this pleasant description of the home of a Serb peasant farmer:

His cottage is generally surmounted by a lofty wooden roof as high again as the building itself and tapering to so acute an angle that the rain has no chance of onset. There are generally two rooms,—a kitchen and a sleeping room where the whole family is herded together. The furniture consists mainly of a big oven, more than one-half filling the kitchen, an array of earthenware jars and cooking utensils ranged along the walls, a wooden table and some stools, all more or less rickety, and the beds, high, narrow, wooden construction covered up to look like cargoes of cushions in the day time.

In 1910 the output of grains, vegetables,

and fruits was given in the agricultural reports published by the government of Servia as follows:

Maize .....	7,391,979	quintals
Wheat .....	3,470,289	"
Barley .....	877,223	"
Oats .....	629,100	"
Other cereals.....	387,979	"
Vegetables .....	1,520,194	"
Sugar beet.....	634,795	"
Tobacco .....	21,500	"
Flax and hemp.....	76,630	"

Fruits:		
Plums .....	270,820,018	kilos
Grapes .....	8,376,400	"
Apples .....	25,701,357	"
Pears .....	20,213,352	"
Other fruits.....	30,525,443	"

All offerings sent for the relief of Servia will be forwarded direct to the country via Greece by the War-Relief Clearing-house for France and Her Allies. It is necessary that this agricultural aid should reach Servia in April, in time for the spring planting.<sup>1</sup>

## ENGLISH CONSCRIPTION AND OUR CIVIL WAR DRAFT

IT is interesting to note that in the arguments now being brought forward in England to justify compulsory military service, or conscription, resort is frequently had to American experience during the Civil War. In the London *Spectator*, for example, attention has been directed to the attitude of President Lincoln on the subject of the draft. An editorial article in that journal declares that Lincoln went through all the stages that England is now going through in the matter of raising troops, except that the voluntary system in America gave results which numerically and in proportion to the population were below those which the voluntary system has given England in the first few months of the war.

Contrary to the general assumption that volunteering in Great Britain has not been as good as it was in the North before the draft was put in force, the *Spectator* declares that it has been very much better. It is assumed, however, that sooner or later the voluntary system will prove not to be giving as many men as are wanted and that recourse to compulsion will be necessary. In that event the *Spectator* holds that the government should make it quite clear to the nation that the excellent pay and allowances now given to England's soldiers cannot be extended to men taken into the ranks by compulsion. The man who comes forward voluntarily should have better terms than he who waits to be compelled. In the case of compulsion the service rendered will not be voluntary service, but will be in the nature of a tax which men are compelled to pay in the interests of the state. The first step of

the government, in the *Spectator's* view, should be to draw up a muster roll. The exact number of men within the military age should be ascertained and they should be classified in every recruiting area in the country, or in such area as may be determined.

Having ascertained the number of men of military age in the country not employed (1) by the state; (2) in carrying out government contracts; (3) in transportation, the government should calculate how many more men in their opinion will be required. Let us, for the purpose of argument, say two million more. Then they should calculate what will be the quota required to be taken from every Parliamentary area,—i.e., constituency,—or such other area as may be determined upon. The next step will be to make an appeal in that area for men to supply its particular quota. If the quota is obtained voluntarily, well and good. If it is not, there must be a ballot amongst the men on the muster-roll,—the men of military age,—in order that the call of the government for so many men from such and such a place may be answered.

In this connection the *Spectator* refers to Lincoln's appeal to the country in support of the draft, which, because of circumstances, was not published at the time, and, in fact, was first given to the world in the authorized life of Lincoln by Nicolay and Hay. The *Spectator* characterizes Lincoln as "a liberal and a democrat and an upholder of popular rights if ever there was one in the world. Yet, strange as it may seem to our Radical friends, he was from the very beginning a strong advocate of compulsory service, or, as he called it, conscription, as the fairest and best way of raising troops for a great national emergency."

This appeal to the people in defense of the draft which Lincoln wrote at that critical juncture is pronounced by the *Spectator*

<sup>1</sup> Contributions are to be sent to the Serbian Agricultural Relief Commission, Bush Terminal, New York, freight prepaid.





HOW THE DRAFT WAS CONDUCTED IN 1863.—THE TURNING OF THE WHEEL IN THE PROVOST MARSHAL'S OFFICE, NEW YORK CITY

(From a war-time drawing in *Harper's Weekly*)

"one of the greatest state papers ever produced in the English language." Lincoln's refusal to publish the document was based, not on any lack of confidence in his argument, but on the fact that after the draft was put in operation it proved to be less unpopular than had been expected, and it was feared that the strength of the language used by Lincoln might possibly have irritated certain men who were rapidly becoming reconciled to the measure. Among the striking passages in Lincoln's address which have been marked by the *Spectator* as peculiarly applicable to the present situation in Great Britain are the following, which the editor commends to his English readers:

At the beginning of the war, and ever since, a variety of motives, pressing, some in one direction and some in the other, would be presented to the mind of each man physically fit for a soldier, upon the combined effect of which motives he would, or would not, voluntarily enter the service. Among these motives would be patriotism, political bias, ambition, personal courage, love of adventure, want of employment, and convenience, or the opposite of some of these. We already have, and have had, in the service as appears, substantially all that can be obtained upon this voluntary weighing of motives. And yet we must somehow obtain more, or relinquish the original object of the contest, together with all the blood and treasure already expended in the effort to secure it.

To meet this necessity the law for the draft has been enacted. You who do not wish to be soldiers do not like this law. This is natural; nor

does it imply want of patriotism. Nothing can be so just and necessary as to make us like it if it is disagreeable to us. We are prone, too, to find false arguments with which to excuse ourselves for opposing such disagreeable things. In this case, those who desire the rebellion to succeed, and others who seek reward in a different way, are very active in accommodating us with this class of arguments. . . . There can be no army without men. Men can be had only voluntarily or involuntarily. We have ceased to obtain them voluntarily, and to obtain them involuntarily is the draft,—the conscription. If you dispute the fact, and declare that men can still be had voluntarily in sufficient numbers, prove the assertion by yourselves volunteering in such numbers, and I shall gladly give up the draft. Or if not a sufficient number, but any one of you will volunteer, he for his single self will escape all the horrors of the draft, and will thereby do only what each one of at least a million of his manly brethren have already done. Their toil and blood have been given as much for you as for themselves. Shall it all be lost rather than that you, too, will bear your part?

I do not say that all who would avoid serving in the war are unpatriotic; but I do think every patriot should willingly take his chance under a law, made with great care, in order to secure entire fairness. . . . The principle of draft, which simply is involuntary or enforced service, is not new. It has been practised in all ages of the world. . . . Shall we shrink from the necessary means to maintain our free government, which our grandfathers employed to establish it and our own fathers have already employed once to maintain it? Are we degenerate? Has the manhood of our race run out? . . . With these views, and on these principles, I feel bound to tell you it is my purpose to see the draft law faithfully executed.

## A GERMAN'S VIEW OF RUMANIA'S INTEREST

WHAT disastrous consequences Rumania would suffer should she decide to join the side of the Allies, how Russia would use her as a cat's paw to further its own aggrandizement, and other pertinent points are interestingly discussed by Baron von Jettel in a recent issue of the *Deutsche Revue* (Berlin).

The convulsion that is shaking Europe to its foundations,—the writer begins,—spreads its waves far beyond its own hearthstone, causing even those countries to waver whose firm stand had been unquestioned. Rumania must, it seems, be reckoned among such unstable powers.

The present war makes high demands upon the wisdom of the statesmen who guide the fortunes of the countries not directly concerned in it. It is for them to decide whether they should join one of the belligerent parties or maintain a more or less friendly neutrality.

Since the Balkan War, in which Rumania intervened only at the moment of greatest confusion, so as to restore order and at the same time extend her dominions, she has played a leading rôle in all the Balkan problems. She had to decide whose influence, that of Austria or Russia, should predominate on the lower Danube, in the non-Slavic regions which form a natural barrier on the road to Constantinople. The writer shows how for centuries Rumania (formerly Moldavia and Wallachia) had been an object of political barter.

A new era began when Charles, a Hohenzollern, ascended the throne, three years after Rumania had been declared independent by the Congress of Berlin. For many years, while Macedonia was rent by factions, Rumania, under the lead of its wise ruler, was an element of order, which, supported by Germany and Austria, seemed destined to form a stout dam against the mighty onrush of the Pan-Slavist, or rather Pan-Russian, wave towards Constantinople and the straits.

After the Balkan War and the ensuing peace negotiations, a marked change was noticeable in Rumania's attitude to the European powers. Its starting-point was the alleged undue favor shown to Bulgaria. Although the Rumanian official documents conclusively disproved this, the opposing side exploited the situation to the utmost, and sought to undermine the ground under

Austria's and Germany's feet in Bucharest.

France was especially zealous in that effort. For a long time the leading aristocratic families, who send their sons to Paris to study, have felt a warm sympathy for that country. French has been the language used in conversation by the ruling classes; four of the most widely read papers are published in that language. Wealthy Rumanians get their literature from Paris, the women their hats and gowns. In March, 1914, two prominent French journalists delivered well-attended lectures in Bucharest, when the term "Latin sister-nation" was strongly emphasized. Ten days later the Culture-League held a meeting at which the deplorable state of the Rumanians in Bukovina and Transylvania was pictured in appealing language, and the Rumanian youth urged to march to their rescue.

That the movement was promoted and exploited by France and Russia is not to be wondered at. A noted Russian publicist, Durnowo, writing to the Bucharest *Universul* in March, 1914, declared that the vital interest of Rumania demanded the union of all the Rumanians under one scepter; in a future war Russia would march alongside of Serbia and Rumania. Count Ignatieff, in his recently published memoirs, writes that "the Austrian and Turkish Slavs must be our allies and the tools of our policy against Germanism; for the attainment of that object alone can Russia make sacrifices for them and endeavor to liberate and strengthen them."

In Bucharest Russian practises are, of course, well known, and extension of Russia's influence is jealously watched. Russia's recent marks of favor, the projected marriage of the Rumanian Crown Prince with a daughter of the Czar, the Czar's visit to Rumania, and so on, all demonstrate the value attached in St. Petersburg to winning over Rumania.

Warning voices have naturally been raised. The late great Rumanian statesman, Demeter Sturdza, in a pamphlet published last spring, observed: "We are threatened with a Russian invasion. Powerful efforts are being made to entice and deceive us. Gold is distributed to bribe the weak. Let us not be deceived by hypocritical promises, which will not be verified; feel as Rumanians should, not according to the wishes of aliens,



or else we shall disappear from the map of the world." And hear the President of the Rumanian Senate: "The Rumanian Government does not allow itself to be led by a press influenced by Russian gold. The entire rise of Rumania's commerce and industry is due solely to German and Austrian capital; from Russia Rumania has not received a farthing, nor can she expect anything from her." Nay, even Take Jonescu, the present leader of the Democrats and advocate of nationalism, writing to the *Romanul*, who declares that there is a natural antagonism between Russia and Rumania; that Russia is a country bent upon conquest, that Fate had interposed Rumania in its way, and that it could attain the object of its wishes only by marching over her dead body,—every consideration commanded her to fight advancing Russia.

Matters stood thus at the beginning of the war, at the outset between Austria and Servia. Russia proceeded at once to continue her efforts to get Rumania and Bulgaria on her side.

What Russia is aiming at is revealed in an article by Professor Jastrebow in the *Birchewija Wjedomosti*: "the conquest of the Dardanelles, with Bulgaria and Rumania for a hinterland," and Giers, the Russian

Ambassador at Constantinople, is cited as the authority for that assertion.

For that matter, nothing can be clearer and more comprehensible than the traditional policy of Russia: Since she has in repeated wars been unable completely to demolish Turkey, the young Balkan States putting new obstructions, on the contrary, in the way of her plans, she contemplates shoving them aside by promises of outlying regions, so as to leave her path free. Thus Transylvania is held out as a bait to Rumania, Macedonia to Bulgaria, and Bosnia to Servia. But even should the deluded ones succeed in attaining the Promised Land, they would have to pay dearly for that success. Politically, as well as economically, Russia would in future be their master and arbiter. Whatever they do now in the direction of weakening their friends will make them all the less able to escape this thralldom.

Russia, however, leads them, as the devil led the Master, to a high mountain and shows them all the realms of the world and says to them: "This power I shall give you and all this glory, for it is committed to me, and I give it at my will. If you will worship me it shall be yours." Will they say: "Get thee behind me, Satan"? This is Baron von Jettel's idea of the situation.

## THE VOICE OF INDIA

**A**BOUT 100,000 of India's sturdy soldiers are fighting in Europe for the defense of the British Empire. The princes and the people of India are lavishly supplying men and money to the British Government. The leaders of Indian thought have unconditionally supported the British in the present crisis. A few representative opinions have been published in the *Indian Review* (Madras) and the *Mahratta* (Poona).

Honorable Sir G. M. Chitnavis thus spoke in the Viceroy's Legislative Council:

Should any outside danger threaten India the people would stand shoulder to shoulder round England; her enemies would find Indians arrayed in a solid phalanx ready to close and reduce any danger and render any sacrifice for the sake of the Empire of which they are all proud citizens. The sentiment is based on gratitude for the past, on contentment in the present, on confidence for the future. . . . The maintenance of British rule is an essential condition of the material and moral progress of India.

Mr. V. P. Madhava Rao, the Prime Minister of the State of Baroda, expressed his opinion as follows:

India should be more interested than England herself in this war and the success of British arms. For if Britain is beaten in the war, it would mean the passing of India into the hands of some other power, and it would mean the utter ruin of all hopes and aspirations of India ever becoming a nation with any degree of self-government. Therefore, it behooves every well-wisher of the country to present a united front to the world and show them that Britain has at her back the support of every one of the various classes and communities over the length and breadth of this great continent.

Apart from the notable utterance of His Holiness the Agakhan, which has been quoted in all parts of the world, Honorable Mr. Muzrul Haque thus succinctly defined the position in this great international catastrophe:

There can be no doubt and no anxiety about our position as Indians. Our Motherland is at war with Germany and Austria, and it is our bounden duty to rally to a man and stand by the side of our Gracious Sovereign.

Even Balgangadhar Tilak, the arch nationalist of India, who has just been released after five years' imprisonment, has appealed to his

countrymen to sink all differences and unite in defense of the Empire. He says:

It has been well said that British rule is conferring inestimable benefit on India, not only by its civilized methods of administration, but also thereby bringing together the different nationalities and races of India, so that a united nation may grow out of it in course of time. I do not believe that if we had any other ruler except the liberty-loving British they would have conceived and assisted us in developing such a national ideal. Everyone who has the interests of India at heart is fully alive to this and similar advantages of the British rule. . . . England has been compelled by the action of the German Emperor to take up arms in defense of a weaker state, whose frontiers have been violated in defiance of several treaty obligations and of repeated promises of integrity. At such a crisis it is, I firmly hold, the duty of every Indian, be he great or small, rich or poor, to support and assist His Majesty's Government to the best of his ability.

Although Great Britain is loyally supported by India in the present crisis, the causes of unrest and friction have not all disappeared. Not only the Hindu revolutionaries, but even some of the progressive Englishmen, feel the need of a radical change in the feeling between the East and the West, especially between India and England. In a stimulating article in the *New Statesman* (London) Mr. "One-Who-Knows-India," evidently an Englishman, points out the path of India's true loyalty to England:

It is obvious that Asia cannot remain forever contented with the position of subordination which it at present occupies. The Russo-Japanese war stirred Asia to its depths, and this war is going to stir it still further. Japan and China are apparently going to play a part in the coming events; and, though the voice of discontent, and what is called sedition, has for the time been hushed in India, that country is very far from being satisfied with the condition of things that prevails within its boundaries, or with the treatment that it receives from the British Government. Everyone who has watched events in India knows that there is a great deal of real discontent there, and unless the British handle the situation in a spirit of liberal statesmanship, and make large political concessions, the situation might easily and rapidly grow grave. The news from India indicates that she is prepared to stand by the Empire wholeheartedly in the crisis.

There is no fear of any complications arising. But this does not justify our concluding that India forgets her grievances against the English Government. What the present attitude of the Indians establishes is that they will stand by the Empire in any quarrel that England may have with other European powers. The only other European powers with ambitions towards India are Russia and Germany. Russia the Indians hate, and for Germany they have no love. What the Indians aspire to is political independence,—not an exchange of masters.

There can be no durable peace in the world unless the civilized West puts into practise its

profession of liberty, humanity, and fraternity, not only in Europe, but throughout the whole world. It may be that the different parts of the world require different treatment, but the object should be to put an end everywhere, not only to military, but also to political despotism, and to give relief to all who suffer therefrom. . . . Asia ought to be made to feel that her legitimate aspirations will not be ignored, and that the relation between Europe and Asia shall in future be those of sisters engaged in common service of humanity, and not those of exploiters and exploited. . . .

The offers by native chiefs of India do not mean very much. Most of them, as we know, are entirely in the hands of their British residents and are actuated by motives not identical with whole-hearted loyalty to the British.

Now, the best and the most effective way to win the genuine and permanent loyalty of India would be to remove the galling bonds that remind her sons every moment of their lives that they are the subjects of an alien government, and that they have no status in the empire to which they are expected to be loyal. What we have to do is, by one bold stroke, to convert the loyalty of impotence or of fear into the loyalty of heart.

And again, in the *Prabudha Zharat*, published at Mayabati, in the Himalayas, we find an article by an anonymous writer that seems to subtly defend the German principles of militarism. Says the writer:

If Germany declares her ambition of world empire to be legitimate, European politics cannot help admitting it. Neither does it behoove England, who has realized that ambition herself, to deny Germany the right of cherishing it. The argument sometimes put forward that the German system of internal government disqualifies her from an attempt to build up a world empire is quite flimsy. It has yet to be proved that democracy is the highest form of government, and German culture and civilization in peace are not inferior to any as yet reached by any European nation. Brutalities committed under the exceptional circumstances of war can hardly discredit them. So on what grounds will European politics, sitting in impartial judgment on Germany, condemn her political ambition? . . . Expansion is the watchword of political life in Europe, and if England proposes to-day to others to have that spirit in them arrested for the sake of peace, the latter may well chuckle on the sly at what they would call either England's selfish craftiness or her satiety. . . .

The real truth is that European politics by its very nature constitutes a perpetual menace to peace. Visions of peace, therefore, are but the idlest dream for these nations that have politics for the foundation of their life and greatness. By the very trend of its civilization Europe is debarred from finding proper means even to minimize the chances of war, and nothing short of a stupendous miracle is necessary effectively to modify its trend.

Certain Hindu writers whose outgivings have been permitted to see the light in America and Germany have been even more outspoken in their expressions of sympathy with the German cause.



# A SOCIALIST FORECAST OF LASTING PEACE

IN *Die Neue Zeit*, Karl Kautsky, the German Socialist leader, brings to a close a series of articles dealing with the practises of war in past times, and in the present conflict. In conclusion, he gives his view of the possible effect upon opinion and upon national policies of the unparalleled devastation and slaughter now going on, and indicates the grounds for his hope that it may be followed by the establishment of permanent peace:

The warfare of to-day brings to a culminating point all the horrors of the strategy of wholesale destruction, spread over an enormously increased area. If the armies of Napoleon were ten times greater than those of Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus, the armies of to-day are ten times greater than those of Napoleon. But we have, in addition, all the devastation and hardships of the strategy of exhaustion, crowded into the least possible space of time, without any pause whatever for breath or recuperation.

And all the powers of modern technique are placed at the service of destruction. Human ingenuity achieves gruesome triumphs in that line.

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We have seen how the development of the last decades had nurtured the military spirit in the people, prepared them for the practises of war. We see now how the war itself assumes forms which demand even greater sacrifices than in the time of Napoleon and Clausewitz, stir up passions perhaps even more deeply, make leniency to the enemy more impossible than ever.

Is it not to be feared that ruder standards of conduct will be retained in peace, too, and will react upon the forms of life where the contrasts of normal social life are found?

That there is such a possibility cannot be denied. But we need not as yet regard it as a necessary consequence, for the opposite tendencies, which were operative before the war, are by no means suppressed. In the bourgeoisie, it is true, they have been partially weakened by the development of recent decades. But it has not fully overcome the influences of the last centuries, and international, scientific, and economic intercourse has attained such wide expansion and become so indispensable, that nothing less than the stress and passion of war can interrupt it, and that only for a time. This intercourse necessitates, of course, international personal relations, which must exert a milder effect upon the feelings and manners bred by war.

Far more important, however, is the strengthening of the proletariat, whose love of peace, international solidarity, and consideration for human life have precisely in the last decades become steadily more pronounced and have formed a powerful dam against any brutalizing influences.

\* \* \*

We see, therefore, powerful humanizing tendencies at work, simultaneously with those of the opposite character. Accordingly, a sharp dis-

cordance may be observed in the war practises of our time as well. There have been times when the horrors and barbarities of war were inflicted by the belligerents without a particle of scruple or hesitation; when, indeed, the knowledge of them was purposely disseminated as a means of terrifying the enemy and breaking his power of resistance. The present war is one which is, indeed, conducted on the plan of wholesale destruction, but in which every act of inhumanity is, nevertheless, looked upon as a disagreeable duty,—except on the part of a few intellectuals who succeed in finding amusement in the most harrowing agonies of death. No man of feeling could bring himself to indulge in a witticism at the execution of even the most depraved criminal. One of the blood-thirstiest esthetes of *Simplicissimus*, Herr Edgar Steiger, breaks into a merry laugh over the agonized death-struggle of 150,000 Russians in the Mazurian swamps. But that is not the spirit of those engaged in the war. The reproach of having committed atrocities they consider as a slander which they repel.

To be sure, the horrors of war, if frequently repeated, may ultimately dull the feelings inculcated in peace. But it is just as possible that they may have the reverse effect,—strengthen those feelings, and arouse a vivid longing for a peace which shall endure and lull the war spirit to sleep once more.

Should the war end in a peace signify only a truce, new armaments, feverish preparation for a new war, then, of course, it would contribute nothing towards the diminution of antagonisms and passions, and of the impulses towards the most merciless practises. But for the present we have no reason to suppose such a peace even possible.

We may expect that a few months of this war will suffice to give rise to as strong a feeling of the need of a lasting peace as did the twenty years of war a hundred years ago. Perhaps it will, as that war was, be brought to a close by an international congress. The combatants already number nearly a dozen; an assemblage of them alone, to conclude peace, would constitute an international congress. It would this time want to apportion not Europe but rather the world. The neutrals, too, would demand admission to it. Governments are not as independent of the people of a country as they were a hundred years ago. They could not simply ignore their wishes. Under these circumstances, it is possible that this congress, supported by the general longing for peace, would consummate a work at least as enduring as that of the Congress of Vienna.

But a fifty years' peace is bound to become a permanent, an everlasting peace. For in that stretch of time the proletariat will beyond doubt have advanced to the point where it will have arranged the world according to its needs. And among those needs are reckoned international solidarity and a policy which secures lasting peace among nations. The ideal of so many thinkers of the last three hundred years will then be realized, not as an ethical postulate but as an actual necessity of a definite social order. Every system of exploitation will disappear.

## A FAMOUS PASTORAL LETTER

ONE of the great documents of the war is the Christmas pastoral letter of Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, entitled "Patriotism and Endurance." The English translation of this letter has been reproduced in full by the *New York Times* (January 22). The letter begins with a reference to the Cardinal's journey to Rome occasioned by the death of Pope Pius X and the election of his successor, and speaks of the destruction and desolation that overtook large portions of Belgium during the Cardinal's absence,—particularly the serious injury to the Cathedral church of Louvain, the burning of the University, "the wholesale shooting of citizens and tortures inflicted upon women and children and upon unarmed and undefended men"; the bombardment of the churches and the Cardinal's palace in Malines,—and he summons his people to turn from this record of disaster to face the duty of the hour, which he sums up in two words; patriotism and endurance. For the Belgian Army he has only words of gratitude and praise, and for the 250,000 soldiers still fighting in defense of the Fatherland, as well as for those who have fallen, he asks the prayers of the faithful.

Lest any hasty reader of his letter should assume that this revered Belgian prelate is speaking from superficial or second-hand knowledge of the facts, he takes the trouble to particularize, giving the names and addresses of priests whom he personally knew to have been put to death by German soldiers. There were thirteen such priests in his own diocese, and, "to my own actual, personal knowledge, more than thirty in the dioceses of Namur, Tournai, and Liège."

In spite of this story of

calamity, the Cardinal exclaims in the ardor of his faith:

God will save Belgium, my brethren, you cannot doubt it.

Nay, rather, he is saving her.

Across the smoke of conflagration, across the stream of blood, have you not glimpses, do you not perceive, signs of His love for us? Is there a patriot among us who does not know that Belgium has grown great? Now, which of us would have the heart to cancel this last page of our national history? Which of us does not exult in the brightness of the glory of this shattered nation? When in her throes she brings forth heroes, our mother country gives her own energy to the blood of these sons of hers.



CARDINAL MERCIER, ARCHBISHOP OF MALINES

(Cardinal Mercier was born in 1851, only a few miles from the battle-field of Waterloo. He had a distinguished academic career at the University of Louvain and became president of the Belgian Royal Academy of Sciences, Letters, and Fine Arts. He was appointed Archbishop in 1906 and created a Cardinal in 1907. This portrait is reproduced from a photograph given by Cardinal Mercier to the Rev. J. F. Stillemaans, president of the Belgian Relief Bureau, New York City)



Then follows a justification of obedience to patriotism as a Christian duty, which, in some of its passages, rises to heights of genuine eloquence. To the suggestion offered by certain citizens of neutral states that Belgium might have saved herself so great a loss of wealth and of life, and that a single cannon-shot on the frontier would have served the purpose of protest, the Cardinal indignantly replies: "Assuredly all men of good feeling will be with us in our rejection of these paltry counsels. Mere utilitarianism is no sufficient rule of Christian citizenship." He continues:

The laws of conscience are sovereign laws. We should have acted unworthily had we evaded our obligation by a mere feint of resistance. And now we would not rescind our first resolution; we exult in it. Being called upon to write a most solemn page in the history of our country, we resolved that it should be also a sincere, also a glorious page. And as long as we are required to give proof of endurance, so long we shall endure.

In the invasion of his country by Germany this outspoken and courageous priest refuses to instruct his people to renounce a single one of their national obligations as citizens. "On the contrary, I hold it as part of the obligation of my Episcopal office to instruct you as to your duty in face of the power that has invaded our soil and now occupies the greater part of our country. The authority of that power is no lawful authority, therefore, in soul and conscience, you owe it neither respect, nor attachment, nor obedience."

A report made by German officials to the Pope stated that 15,000 copies of the pastoral letter were seized in Malines and destroyed, the printer being fined; that the Cardinal was detained in his palace during all of January 4; that he was prevented by German officers on January 3 from presiding at a religious ceremony; that they subjected him to interrogations and demanded of him a retraction, which he refused to make.

## A GREAT BELGIAN,—ERNEST SOLVAY

IT was with painful emotions that the world of science learned that Ernest Solvay, the great Belgian philanthropist and scientist, had been taken as a war hostage, by the German Governor of Brussels. This is the same Solvay who has contributed so much to the progress of science in Germany, as he has also contributed to its progress in other countries. But Germany came in for a larger share of his bounty through the application of his impartial methods, by the very fact that there is a greater number of people engaged in the study of physics in Germany than elsewhere.

The great Dutch physicist, H. A. Lorentz, contributes to the *Revue du Mois*, of Paris, an article devoted to Ernest Solvay, in which he expresses the highest respect for him and the keenest appreciation for his work. He says in part:

Ernest Solvay has created, through his talents and his perseverance, one of the greatest and most flourishing industries of the world. In Belgium, France, Germany, Russia, England, and the United States, the production of sodium, based on his formula, furnishes work to thousands of people. The fortune which he accumulated during a half century of activity has been to Ernest Solvay only a means to an end: the development of scientific research and helping the cause of humanity. Those who have visited Brussels are familiar with the Institute of Physiology, the School of Commerce, and the Institute of Sociology, which were

all founded by Solvay. Not content with this, the great Belgian undertook to make a reality an idea which Nernst, of Berlin, had conceived. With that end in view, he invited a number of scientists from various countries to a conference, to discuss questions relating to modern physics.

After the conference, which took place in 1911, and of which Professor Lorentz was made chairman, Solvay proposed to create an international institute of physics and endowed it with 1,000,000 francs. Professor Lorentz continues:

Professor Heger, of Brussels, and myself were entrusted with the task of drawing up the statutes of the new foundation. Solvay gave us almost absolute freedom of action. He confined his instructions to the mere statement that after a certain sum had been reserved, in the interest of scientific pursuits in his own country, the rest was to be divided with strict impartiality among all other nationalities. This institution has been in existence two years.

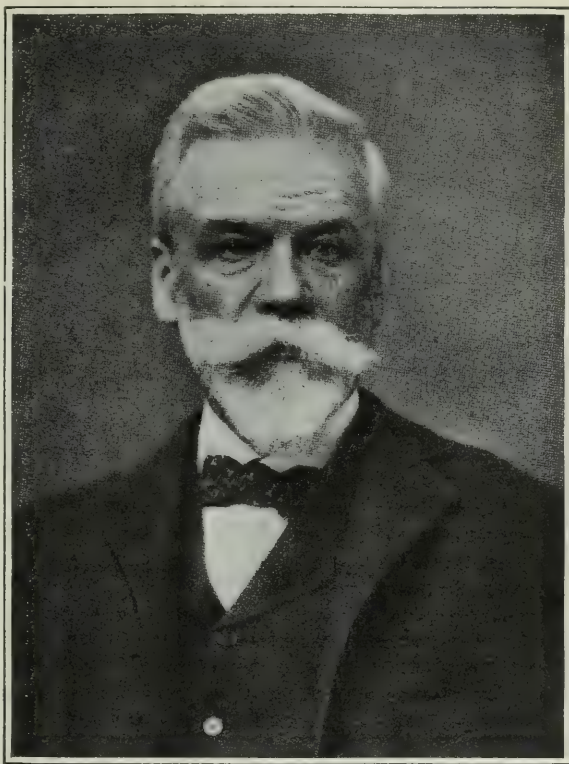
In 1913 another scientific convention took place, and again considerable sums of money were placed at the disposal of the chemists and physicists of the world. The distribution of the money was entrusted to the International Scientists' Committee, in which Belgium, France, Germany, England, Denmark, and the Netherlands were represented. Needless to say, the committee adhered strictly, in apportioning the money, to the principles of impartiality upon which Solvay insists. He also created another international institute as a branch of the first, on the same general principles, and endowed it likewise with 1,000,000 francs.

Ernest Solvay [continues Professor Lorentz] is a great philanthropist as well as a great scientist. Shortly after the foundation of the institute he gave 1,000,000 francs for the betterment of the working classes of Belgium. It was primarily their education and enlightenment which he had in view. Besides all this, the University of Brussels, which is independent of the state, owes much to Solvay's great generosity.

Professor Lorentz concludes with the following words:

I hope that the misfortunes that have fallen upon M. Solvay and the people whom he represents so worthily will not prevent him from continuing his work for the advance of science and civilization. It is a work to which he seems especially called.

Ernest Solvay is seventy-six years of age. His father was a small manufacturer of salt, and in 1861 the son obtained the Belgian patent for a process of manufacturing soda, or sodium bicarbonate, by the action of ammonium bicarbonate upon brine. Most of the soda of commerce is now made by this process. On the fiftieth jubilee of the ammonia-soda process King Albert named M. Solvay Grand Officer of the Order of Leopold.



ERNEST SOLVAY, THE BELGIAN SCIENTIST AND PHILANTHROPIST: A HOSTAGE TO GERMANY

## WORLD MISSIONS IN THE WAR CRISIS

SIXTY-FIVE of the 176 pages of the latest *International Review of Missions* (Edinburgh) are devoted to a survey of missionary progress during 1914. In Japan social unrest is leading to introspection, repentance, and the study of the Bible by many prominent men; a Christian university is being hopefully agitated for; Japan's appreciative Emperor has donated \$50,000 to St. Luke's missionary hospital. The recent official revival of Confucianism in China is awakening a wide interest in religion, a proof of which is the systematic and guided study of the New Testament by more than 18,000 of the 150,000 who attended the evangelistic meetings of Sherwood Eddy; and the Roman Catholics report 100,000 additions to the Church. India's social conscience is awakening to new social reforms; a woman's missionary college is being started by ten coöperating missions; increasing mass movements will revolutionize India, is the prediction of Sir Harnam Singh, Moderator of the Gen-

eral Assembly of seven Presbyterian bodies. Ceylon is stirred by Buddhist zeal evoked by Christian missions, while a native Christian missionary society is beginning a vigorous career. In Central Africa, Daudi has been crowned first Christian King of Uganda, forty years after Stanley's appeal to England to evangelize its people. In Siam Christianity has been given equal rights with Buddhism, the state religion. Java reports 24,000 Moslem converts in Christian churches.

Missionary periodicals are full of the war. The February *Missionary Review of the World* (New York) presents a German view through Missions-Inspektor Schlunk, who reports that mobilization has called candidates from mission seminaries and has transferred Togoland and South China missionaries to the firing-line in those countries. Funds are raised with difficulty and transmitted but seldom and uncertainly. Yet the religious wave occasioned by the war is helpful to German Missions.



Basil Mathews voices the hopeful note of British Missions derivable from the Revolutionary and Napoleonic era, when their greatest societies were founded, and from the Crimean and China wars, when they made notable advances;—a hope fortified by continued contributions and unflagging missionary interest. Britain and Germany alike lean upon Dr. Mott, an American neutral, who, Mr. Mathews says, is "one of the greatest reconciling personalities in the world to-day. British and Germans may not talk to one another through the smoke of war, but we can talk with Dr. John R. Mott." Professor Cramb's dictum, "Corsica has conquered Galilee," he thus comments upon: "Corsica may have momentarily eclipsed Galilee, but Corsica ended in St. Helena, while Galilee, after the dark hour of Crucifixion, blazed into the immortal glory of Resurrection and the conquering progress of the enduring dominion of Christ."

The Anglican missionary quarterly, *The East and the West* (London) for October last begins with two articles, one describing the history and possibilities of the Anglican bishopric in Jerusalem, the other pleading for an adequate negro and European ministry for English and Bantu peoples of South Africa. The Rev. A. C. Moule tells the story of failing Nestorian and Roman Catholic Missions in China, from 635 A.D. onward, giving nine reasons for their failure. C. F. Andrews, who has endeared himself to Indians through advocating their cause in South Africa and at home, and who is now working with India's poet laureate, Rabindranath Tagore, though still a missionary, argues for the incorporation of race factors into the Indian Church and for the implied interracial fellowship of all Christians there. The study of missionary history as to values and methods and the part played by negro agents in Uganda's Christianization are two illuminating articles for students and missionary administrators, respectively. Mr. Horsburgh voices the objections of plain men to missions and partly acknowledges their validity and in part shows their falsity. Archdeacon Farquhar, a negro Churchman sent by his West Indian fellow countrymen to Africa, discriminatingly explains the negro's differing status and problems in South Africa, in the West Indies, and in the United States, and asks the Church to solve the color problem ecclesiastically and in righteousness.

The January issue of *The East and the West* contains two articles on the war and missions. In the second of these the British

Empire and Germany are contrasted as to the ethical principles underlying war and their relation to non-Christian races. Professor Cramb, Nietzsche and Treitschke are quoted as disregarding of the rights of the weak, and the verdict of Confucianist, Buddhist, and Moslem is said to be opposed to the German doctrine and practise. Hindu India stands loyally by Britain's rule and spirit, and dark Africa is fighting under her banners. Meanwhile it seems probable that other territories than Egypt, through its Sudan, will come into her possession. New and increased missionary responsibilities will thus result from the present conflict.

Last January saw the launching of the most sumptuous and popular of missionary periodicals, *World Outlook* (New York), the organ of the Methodist Episcopal Board of Foreign Missions, but catholic enough to appeal to men of all faiths. Its format resembles that of *Country Life in America*. It is emphatically an outlook and not a world review, scrutinizing the forces of civilization that are sweeping over twilight countries and opening its pages to discussions of world-wide significance in which men of varying creeds participate. That of the initial number is a symposium entitled "Is World Federation Practicable?" in which seventeen eminent men share—Andrew Carnegie, Oscar Straus, Josiah Strong, Secretary Daniels, President Jordan, Dr. Jefferson, Rabbi Wise, and others equally prominent.

Africa is the leading theme of the first issue, with North Africa of the future, Ethiopia on wheels, Europe-owned Africa, the making of the new womanhood of North Africa and what the editor-in-chief saw there, as prominent sub-topics. Mr. Crowther's African railway article is particularly striking. If the initial pace can be maintained and denominationalism is subordinated, *World Outlook* will be on the news-stands and Missions will become a theme of the street.

How many-handed and how whole-hearted the missionary enterprise is one sees illustrated in the February *Spirit of Missions* (New York), which happens to be a children's number. Hearts and pockets are reached by Dr. Jefferys' tales from a Shanghai hospital. Principal Tamura's story of Mrs. Miyoshi, a homemaker of Japan, is in quaint English which makes the life attractive. Ezra Everett's "Sailor Jack" depicts the temptations and difficulties of men for whom are erected Seamen's Institutes, one of which is half-toned for us.

## THE DISAPPEARANCE OF FRENCH LITERATURE

LITERATURE being a luxury, it naturally is the first to suffer from the social disorganization brought about by war. In all belligerent countries there is a marked slump in the literary output. Even in efficient Germany the tremendous yearly production of novels, dramas, and other forms of art has been greatly diminished, though the volume of war literature is large enough to fill the gap thus created.

In England the situation is more normal. The novelists continue to write novels, the theaters continue to produce plays, and the magazines appear regularly, unreduced in size.

In France, however, literary activity has ceased almost entirely. Many of the French writers are fighting in the trenches. Twenty of them have already been killed and more than thirty wounded. Those remaining at home can find no publishers to bring out their works because the public would not buy them. In an article in *Poetry and Drama* Remy de Gourmont gives the following account of the literary ravages the war has caused in France:

In a day the war suppressed all the means by which men of letters ordinarily derived an income from their art. The greater part of the reviews have ceased to appear, or are published only in a much smaller form; even the daily papers have suspended all literary and pictorial contributions. It is hardly necessary to say that the publication of books has undergone the same fate. They all stopped short at the moment when the order for general mobilization was received. In the complex labor necessary to the material production of a book, the slightest disorganization of one of the parts stops the work. But on this occasion all were attacked progressively, and a total paralysis was the result.

Moreover, what was the use of publishing books even if it had been physically possible? There was nobody to buy them, and hardly anybody to read them. It would have been making a present to the public which the public would not have noticed. The newest and most passionate book of the day before mobilization did not exist on the day after.

When I returned to Paris at the beginning of October, committees of relief had been organized for writers, and the *Société des Gens de Lettres* had instituted free dinners for its members. It is apparent how rapidly distress had broken out when such extreme measures had to be resorted to. The writers could not write, the printers could not print, the readers could not buy and read. The literary organism slept. It is still sleeping, and no one knows when it will awaken.

Like the other belligerent countries, how-

ever, France is beginning to have a war literature on a small scale. The military publishers, Berger-Levrault, have begun the publication of a periodical album with high-class war pictures. They are also planning the publication of a review of the war, not put up in a journalistic hurry, but carefully treated by writers of distinguished scholarship. Other publishers are planning similar undertakings, and even the issue of books. But so far as the books are concerned, it is still merely a hope. The only books published to date, says Remy de Gourmont, are a few military pamphlets and a reprint of a short, fantastic military novel, which has not met with much success.

The reality is so overwhelming that the French reading public does not seem to be interested in imaginary descriptions of war. They are satisfied with the official *communiqués* from day to day, with the accounts of apparently monotonous movements of vast bodies of men, which, however prosaic they may seem in the dry military reports, fire the lively imagination of the Frenchmen with their tremendous import. Nevertheless, the Frenchmen have not lost their taste for reading. The public libraries, especially in Paris, find the same demand for their books now as before the war. Allowing for the decrease in the population of Paris, this would indicate a greater interest in reading than in ante-war times.

The man who loves reading [Gourmont goes on to say] does not give it up willingly, and it is precisely during the hardest times that he feels the most need of books. The book-buyer who was thought to have vanished has reappeared, and since there are no new books he asks for last season's, even for last year's. This is another symptom of the revival of literature. Perhaps even when the enemy is driven from France, a few new books may be published.

To explain this, it should be borne in mind that Paris, to which many rich people returned during the month of October, is totally deprived of amusements. There are no exhibitions, no social gatherings, no horse races, no theaters. Everyone feels the necessity for amusement, and everyone chooses what is perhaps the most speculative for a man of the world, but the most secret and most discreet,—reading. In certain circles they are beginning to think that it was a mistake to close all the theaters. A number of actors and supers are on the streets, and they are the less resigned to their fate because of the Winter, which makes their hardships all the more distressing. Little by little the drama will reoccupy a small niche in the social world without the theaters being actually opened. They will not



play dramas, but they will recite poetry and read pages of good prose.

In conclusion Gourmont indulges in a bit of somewhat timid speculation as to the future:

What will the theater of tomorrow be and what the literature? If we knew, it would be deprived of much of its interest; for all literary work, even the most serious, derives part of its value from the quality of novelty. It is always disappointing to find things happen exactly at the hour and exactly in the manner foretold. Genius loves surprises.

We shall be surprised if genius has anything to do with the war. But will it? Shells and bullets also love surprises.

A young officer, himself a writer, with whom I was discussing this question the other day on his return from the fifteenth battle during one month, said to me, "If the new literature is sincere, it will be cynical like war itself. Those who have passed through it will have no illusions. They will know human nature through and through." He talked to me for a long time in this way, and even more bitterly. But he, perhaps, is an exception. Nothing changes a man's temperament. Each will feel the war according to his nature, and that will be a very excellent thing.

## REGULATION OF PUBLIC UTILITIES

LAST November a noteworthy conference of American mayors was held in Philadelphia for the discussion of the gigantic problem of public-utility control or regulation. The proceedings of that conference have now been published as Volume LVII of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, with the title: "Public Policies as to Municipal Utilities." Perhaps a happier title and one less indicative of confusion of thought as well as less conducive to confusion of counsel would have been "Municipal Policies as to Public Utilities,"—since "the man in the street" is only beginning to understand that by the term "public utility" is meant the providing of some sort of public service in any one of such necessities of the modern American community as water supply, gas, electricity for light and power, the telephone, the street railway, and so on; and since not one public utility in a hundred in the United States, at least, can truthfully be called a "municipal utility." However, under whatever group-title, the symposium of papers, addresses, and remarks thus published constitutes a highly interesting and valuable contribution to the consideration of a vitally important subject.

Among more than a score of able papers, one by Dr. Edward W. Bemis, a member of the Advisory Board, Valuation Department, Interstate Commerce Commission, on "Some Present-Day Issues of Public Utility Regulation," is notable for its comprehensive grasp of the whole question. Sketching in rapid review the significant developments of the last decade, Dr. Bemis points out that whereas ten years ago Massachusetts was the only State that had a commission empowered to deal with public utilities, today twenty-six States and the District of Columbia have such commissions, and in

many other States the utilities themselves are seeking to have commissions created. He finds that "the tendency of a few years ago toward home rule in the regulation of these monopolies has been temporarily checked. Municipal ownership, also, for a time, seemed to be sidetracked," although of late certain developments "indicate that State regulation is not found to be as popular as was generally expected."

Meantime [he continues], the growth of these utilities has been remarkable. The sale of artificial gas has more than doubled in the last ten years. The sale of electric light and power was over four times as much in 1912 as in 1902. The number of passengers carried by street railways more than doubled in the same ten years, while the estimated number of telephone messages was nearly three times as large in 1912 as in 1902. State commission regulation is now with us in most States. It can give us publicity and uniformity of accounts, tests of service, and many other benefits. We accept it where in vogue, and in this paper we consider how to meet some of the problems involved.

These problems Dr. Bemis considers under eight separate classifications:

(I.) The failure of cities to realize that commissions tend to assume the attitude of courts, and to be influenced by the relative weight of evidence, rather than to become independent investigating bodies. (II.) The personnel of these commissions is of the greatest importance. (III.) The methods of determining the amount of property on which a reasonable return should be earned cannot be too carefully studied by all lovers of fair play. (IV.) Going value, reserves, and surplus earnings present big problems. (V.) The apportionment of rates between various classes of electric consumers should not always be according to cost of service. (VI.) The virtual if not legal validation of all our watered securities under the guise of state approval of new securities is another serious menace. (VII.) The relation of regulation to municipal ownership. Commission regulation must be divorced from interference with the charges and administration of municipal plants, ex-

cept in the requirement of publicity and uniformity of accounts. (VIII.) Syndicates of capital must be met with syndicates of cities.

In point of novelty, at least, the last topic in Dr. Bemis's list was his most important; and the conference of mayors voted to establish a "Utilities Bureau" as a nation-wide intercity agency for bringing the combined ability and experience of all our cities to the service of each city which may face a public-utility problem.

Another paper which aroused much interest at the conference was that by Stiles P. Jones, secretary of the Voters' League of Minneapolis, on "What Certain Cities Have Accomplished Without State Regulation." Mr. Jones, an unconditional and thoroughgoing advocate of municipal ownership and operation of all public utilities, while admitting that State regulating commissions have done some good, maintains that "it is in the cities that have worked out their own salvation that the largest degree of success in rates and service has been achieved." Holding that municipal ownership is the only possible solution of the problem, he says:

Vesting in the State the regulation of the cities' utilities seems to me nothing less than a weak and cowardly dodging of plain civic duty and responsibility. The effect must inevitably be the same

upon the community as <sup>4</sup>on the individual,—the loss of will and purpose and capacity to do other things. Municipal ownership has not come to our cities, and will not, through the route of State regulation, no matter how efficient in the public interests that regulation may be. In fact, the greater the efficiency the more distant the final day of public ownership. Municipal ownership is coming rather through the trials and experiences of a city wrestling bravely with its own problems, working them out in its own way, be it good or bad for the time being, and fitting itself, through that experience, for the final step,—the step which will end the long night of conscienceless exploitation of the most valuable resources of our cities and the debauching of their public life to make private profits.

As a review of some of "the larger achievements of the cities," he then presents in rosette terms the accomplishments of Minneapolis in compelling a low gas rate and a greatly improved street-railway service; of Indianapolis, in forcing the lowest gas rate in the country; of Seattle, in reducing electric rates by building a municipal plant; of Winnipeg, in like fashion; of Kansas City and Pasadena, in the same field; of Detroit, Cleveland, and Toledo, in victories over their "street railway monopolies," and of San Francisco, in building a municipal street railway giving access to the exposition grounds and in "meeting its water problem with equal vigor."

## TEACHER-MOTHERS IN NEW YORK SCHOOLS

A MARRIED woman employed as a teacher in one of the public schools of New York City was absent from the school for the purpose of bearing a child and was dismissed by the Board of Education on the charge of neglect of duty. Her case was appealed to the State Commissioner of Education, Dr. John H. Finley, who has revoked the decision of the board and ordered the reinstatement of the teacher. His reasons for this action are summarized in *School and Society* for January 16.

Commissioner Finley's findings are of interest to teachers and school officers throughout the country, since they deal with a situation that may arise in the school administration of any State. In the State of New York and under the rules and practise of the Board of Education of New York City, married women teachers may be and are employed. Under a decision of the Court of Appeals a woman teacher may not be dis-

missed on account of marriage after entering the service. The question presented to Commissioner Finley was: "May the board dismiss a married woman teacher for that which is the lawful, natural consequence of marriage and its social sanction?"

This is the Commissioner's answer as communicated to the Board of Education:

Without undertaking to determine or to define here the limits of the board's discretion (and it is and has been the general policy of this Department to assure the widest discretion practicable) and without discussing here the advantages and disadvantages of the policy of employing married teachers or estimating their relative efficiency (since such rehearsal would not touch directly the matter at issue) I present the conclusion to which I am compelled after a careful and thorough examination of all the papers in the case: That the board should have accepted the natural corollary of its policy, voluntary or enforced, of employing or retaining married women teachers, and should have given at least as favorable consideration to an absence for childbirth as is normally given to absences asked for rea-



sons of personal convenience, of minor or grave illness, or for purposes of study and travel or of improving health.

Home duties should doubtless, in some cases, suggest to the teacher her withdrawal from the school after maternity. Dismissal for "general inefficiency" would be warranted if upon return a teacher was found to be unable after trial to perform school duties. But it is difficult to conceive how a reasonable, unwillful absence, due to a natural unavoidable cause, could be construed as neglect of duty; and it is difficult to understand why an absence for the most highly creditable social reason should be so treated.

As Commissioner I would give every possible aid in my power to promote devotion to duty, zealous service, and efficiency on the part of the teachers of the State, to prevent neglect of duty and inefficiency and to eliminate incompetence;

and I attribute only such high purposes to the board of education in its action in this case. But I am of the clear opinion, which I am obliged to follow, that these ends and purposes will not be served by selecting, or seeming to select, for stigma or reproach such a reason for temporary absence from school duty as is offered in this case, or inferring, or seeming to infer, inefficiency from the mere fact of motherhood.

If, as this Honorable Board appears to hold, married women teachers should *ipso facto* end their service upon maternity, this policy (which I cannot believe sound in principle or wholesome in practise) can be made possible only through legislation making it lawful to discharge, because of marriage, a teacher in service. Meanwhile it is the duty of the board to adopt a practise in accord with the clear intent of existing law and in harmony with this decision.

## A NEW MUSICAL PERIODICAL

A NEW musical magazine has just made its appearance. It is called the *Musical Quarterly*. Published by G. Schirmer (New York and London), its editor is Oscar G. Sonneck, who is probably better known to writers on music and students of the history of the art than to the general public. Mr. Sonneck is chief of the Music Division of the Library of Congress, where, since 1902, he has built up one of the finest musical libraries in the world. He is also the author of several scholarly books on the history of music in America. He is eminently well qualified in every way for the task of piloting such a new venture in the sea of musical exegesis as this new quarterly, which, by reason of its seriousness of purpose, its scholarly tone, and its freedom from the bane of artists' advertising, at once takes the lead among the musical periodicals of the time, and deserves the support of every serious-minded musician and music lover.

The foundations of the new magazine were laid months before the outbreak of the European War, and that catastrophe placed the editor under the necessity of changing the distribution of his forces and of adjusting his plans to unwelcome circumstances. While the war lasts, doubtless, articles by distinguished foreign writers will be fewer than were solicited and promised. Yet this first number, besides a good showing of articles by Americans, contains contributions by J. A. Fuller-Maitland, formerly music critic of the London *Times* and editor of "Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians"; W. H. Hadow, dean of Worcester College, Oxford, editor of "The Oxford History of Music," and author of two admirable volumes of

"Studies in Modern Music"; Francis Toye, of London, and W. J. Lawrence, of Dublin.

Among the articles by American contributors, Waldo S. Pratt, professor of history of music in the Institute of Musical Art, New York, leads off with a paper "On Behalf of Musicology," by which curious and not altogether alluring term he means a comprehensively planned science of music that shall embrace every branch of study bearing upon



MR. OSCAR G. SONNECK  
(Editor of the new *Musical Quarterly*)

music—*musical physics*, or *acoustics*, *musical psychics* (including all that is known or can be discovered about those psychological phenomena which are distinctively musical), *musical poetics* (including whatever pertains to the essential method or form of expression, regarded as a process of invention or manufacture), *musical esthetics*, *musical graphics* (including everything pertaining to notation, whether manual or mechanical), *musical technics* (including both instruments and methods of using them artistically) and *musical practics* (including all practical applications of musical art). The subdivisions under these seven divisions are legion.

T. P. Currier, of Boston, contributes thirty-five pages of pleasant chat about "Edward MacDowell as I Knew Him"—very readable reminiscences; Francis Rogers writes of "America's First Grand Opera Season," when Manuel Garcia brought his musical family to New York in 1825; there is an article on "Music Reform in the Cath-

olic Church," by H. T. Henry; one on "The Measurement of Musical Talent," by Carl E. Seashore, a well-known psychologist and inventor of psychological instruments; and William J. Henderson, music critic of the New York *Sun*, has a paper on "The Function of Musical Criticism."

Mr. William Henry Hadow's paper on "Some Aspects of Modern Music" is the work of a scholar who knows how to write, and write gracefully. Moreover, he writes as a wise man,—a man of good, sound sense. He is in sympathy with real progress, wherever found, but he has no sympathy for fads, poses, or mere sensationalism. At the present day, he finds, because of the extreme rapidity with which the language and idiom of music have altered during the last twenty years, it appears as if the whole musical problem were being restated; as if the very principles of the art were called in question; as if its vocabulary were being written afresh and its most vital distinctions dismissed as obsolete.

## ETHNIC DARWINISM

THE "ethnic tableau" of the war as approved by Professors Münsterberg and Albert Bushnell Hart is set forth in a terse article in the current issue of the *Unpopular Review*:

These distinguished scholars share with many diplomats and numerous nobodies the notion of a world divided into superior and inferior races who of necessity are foes. . . .

The advocates of this sort of cataclysmic ethnology speak a common language which explains the most complicated international relations with elementary lucidity. In the present conflict, for example, France, belonging to a decadent race—Latin races are by definition decadent—has logically followed a privateering course of revenge. Latin races are short-sighted, but must act according to their lights, pending their predestined passing off the stage.

England's case arouses some surprise. Having been founded by good Teutons, Angles and Saxons, she amazingly misses the point that her place is at Germany's shoulder in the second line of defense against the Slav, who is fundamentally an Asiatic and incidentally a Cossack.

Of course, Italy also having for a generation enjoyed treaty privileges with two Teutonic allies might fairly have been expected to rise above the Latin irresponsibility in the present emergency. In her gradual and fated decline it would clearly be better for her to ground arms before the Teuton than before the Asiatic.

The status of the great mass of Slavs in the Austrian Empire is strangely neglected by these experts in world politics. Apparently there has been some Teutonic laying on of hands which has

effectually de-Asiaticized the Austrian Slavs, so that they may appropriately slay their still Asiatic cousins.

This application of the law of the survival of the fittest is Ethnic Darwinism. One nation is another's keeper at the subordinate nation's expense. Any intimation of equality means that the struggle for existence must begin over again.

Houston Stewart Chamberlain and others with much ability have driven home the conviction that purity of race is all, and that only pure races are politically to be reckoned with, and that these are always in the long run competitive to the point of war. Now the very conception of pure race is biologically absurd, as applied to any of the existent great nations.

The Basques, the Bretons, the Irish, the Highland Scots, the Jews, the Finns, the Scandinavians, and possibly a moiety of the Slavs and Magyars are about the only races in Europe that a scientific ethnologist would recognize as pure. England, France, Germany, Italy, Austria, even Russia, are highly hybridized, and very much for the good of those nations. When we speak of Teuton and Slav, we mean nothing more than masses politically united who think and feel more or less in unison under teaching more or less competent. Their good thinking can be encouraged, their bad thinking corrected, under wise instruction. Is it wise instruction to teach these nations that their aims and ambitions are fatally incompatible, the culture of one requiring the inferiority of the rest, the rise of any, imperiling those who have already attained?



# A SUSPENSION BRIDGE OF VINES



SUSPENSION BRIDGE BUILT BY NATIVES ACROSS THE LUBEFU RIVER, CENTRAL AFRICA

**I**N the August, 1914, number of this REVIEW (page 231) there was reproduced a photograph of a wooden cantilever bridge built by Indians of British Columbia. This picture was seen by the Rev. J. A. Stockwell, an American missionary of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, who is stationed at Lusambo, Congo Belge, Africa. Thinking that the REVIEW's readers would be interested in the bridge-building efforts of the natives of Central Africa, Mr. Stockwell took the trouble to send us photographs of a suspension bridge across the Lubefu River, about 1500 miles from the sea.

This bridge, as will be seen from the photographs that are reproduced herewith, was constructed wholly of vines of a very tough, fibrous nature. The sides are nearly five feet high, and join at the bottom, forming a sort of V-

shaped trough. Mr. Stockwell states that the bridge has three main cables composed of twisted vines, one at the apex of the V and one at either side, with two single vines run in between on each side, and every four to six inches cross-vines are woven and tied in so as to hold the whole structure together. The bridge is further strengthened by numerous

guy vines running from different points on the bridge to the trees on either bank.

From an architectural point of view, Mr. Stockwell describes the bridge as a fine piece of work, but states that the approaches are very difficult, being nothing but crude ladders made of round poles, also tied together with vines. The river at this point is nearly 150 feet wide, with a swift current, but the bridge is frequently called upon to support as many as six natives carrying loads of from 50 to 100 pounds each.



NATIVE CROSSING THE BRIDGE

# A NEW TREATISE ON THE COSMIC RELATIONS

MR. HENRY HOLT presents in two volumes<sup>1</sup> a brilliant discussion of the most important of the phenomena and comment concerned with cosmic relations, that has been distributed through forty volumes of the investigations of the Society of Psychical Research. As Mr. Holt writes, "Cosmic Relations" is a brief term for the interactions between the Soul and the Universe, —the object of these interactions to bring about the expansion of our souls and the growth of permanent happiness.

While we are very familiar with certain relationships and reactions between our souls and the Cosmos, we are very ignorant of others; and in many of the practical-minded of us there exists a disinclination to pursue this subject lest we fall over the edge of the proven fact into the abyss of the fanciful and the groundless. Mr. Holt makes it quite clear that there is no such danger, provided we will pursue our investigations in a sane and rational spirit such as characterizes our scientific research, together with a sincere desire for proof of the expansion of human consciousness.

Out of the voluminous reports of the Society of Psychical Research, Mr. Holt has selected that which he deems most illuminating and helpful to those who are willing to believe that there is another life beyond

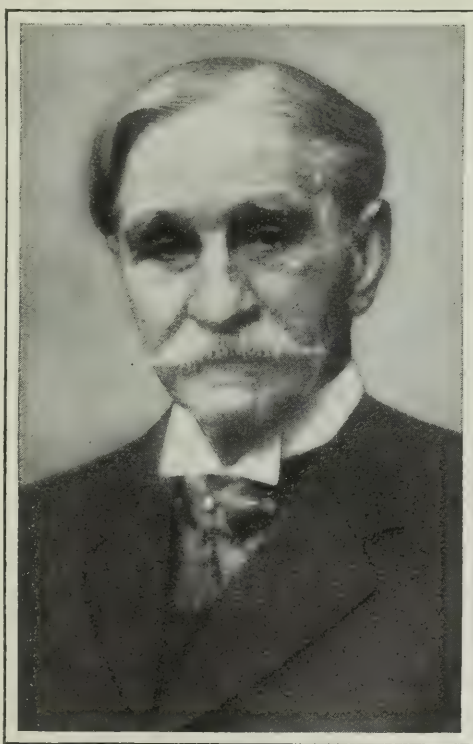
death, and that to make full use of this life we must make all possible preparation in the one which we are now living. Out of the ripeness of his knowledge and experience, he asks us to turn our faces "from Lombard Street and Wall Street, not to speak of the Savoy and the Waldorf-Astoria," to look beyond the material facts of our lives into the larger spiritual universe toward which every

fact of evolution unerringly points the way. Mr. Holt writes in the preface:

Of course no one could sanely undertake an exhaustive treatment of the subject indicated by the title of this book. What I have attempted is an outline of the evolution of the relations between the soul and the external universe, and a summary of the recognized relations that are still so immaturely evolved as to be little understood. With the latest philosophy, I have assumed a germ of consciousness in each particle of star-dust, recognizing the consciousness when it becomes obvious in the recoil of protoplasm from contact, and following the evolution up through primitive life into the soul as we know it to-day. I have made this sketch with a special view to showing that the existence of an unknown universe is a corollary of the evolution of knowledge.

This has often been expressed in a sentence, but not often systematically expounded and illustrated.

Mr. Holt begins our lesson in evolution with a chapter on the body, since it is the instrument through which the soul functions to reach the greater Universe. He starts with the *amæba*, that little primitive cell-



MR. HENRY HOLT, THE NEW YORK PUBLISHER, WHO, AT SEVENTY-FIVE, HAS PRODUCED A MASTERLY WORK EMBODYING THE RESULTS OF PSYCHICAL RESEARCH

<sup>1</sup> On the Cosmic Relations. By Henry Holt, Houghton Mifflin. 2 vols., 999 pp. \$5.



ancestor of the Greek Athlete, and leads us up to the consideration of the nervous system of the human body, which he tells us in outline looks like a "statue of lace," and is the apparatus for "the soul's voluntary reaction with the universe." Next mind and soul are considered,—the perceptions and the intellect, the emotions and the will, and all that is interwoven in their complex activities. On the evolution of monogamy he says:

The evolution of monogamy seems, in a rough way, to accompany the evolution of beauty, intelligence and character. . . .

With mankind, the prevalence of monogamy is the most distinct test of progress, not only as a characteristic of nations, but even of social sets. At the two extremes of life, among those debased by low nutrition and impoverished sensation, monogamy languished. Where bodies are healthiest, sensations and habits nearest normal, intelligence broadest, morals highest, and sensibilities keenest and most catholic, love in its whole blessed range from parents to each other and to offspring is deepest and most enduring; there monogamy has been the chief cause of the peculiar evolution, and is itself most thoroughly evolved; and the family as the foundation for the development of the individual and the state is nearest intact. This development means the enlargement of the Cosmic Relations.

Mr. Holt goes to considerable pains to disabuse the average intelligence of its misconceptions as to "table-tipping" and other psychic phenomena. Psychic manifestations, when genuine, come from certain modes of force not generally understood; the author tentatively considers them as "*telekinetic*" and "*autokinetic*," accordingly as they act outside or through the body; and he is able to substantiate his statements with personal experiences that are remarkable and convincing. The phenomena of "dowsing" is considered; the rappings heard by Barret, Moses and Crookes, the effects produced by Palladino, Mrs. Piper, and other famous mediums, telepathy, so-called obsessions, dreams, and mediumistic visions of the future life, memory, automatic writing,—hallucinations waking and sleeping, etc. His discussion of dreams shows us how little we really know about them. He hardly agrees with Fechner, Du Prel, and Myers, who have said that dreams were created by a submerged portion of one's own wits:

Never in my dreams have I seen or heard anything extraordinary in the arts where I have some trifling capacity; while in some arts where I have no capacity at all, I have from childhood seen things more beautiful than any human being has ever made. . . . The notion that I made in my dreams the beautiful things so far beyond my capacity,—some of them beyond anybody's,—

seems ridiculous. Perhaps they "just growed," like Topsy.

He conceives dreams as an inflow of the world-soul:

Is there an inflow from the Power greater than ourselves, which not only as motion does our breathing, circulating and secreting, but as mind does our dreaming, feeling, and thinking?

Mr. Holt's summing-up of the matter of our cosmic relations is in part as follows: That psychic manifestations bring to our understanding "for the first time an understandable and rational heaven," and go to prove that life in the hereafter is a continuance of life here with the trivial interruption of death. Also that it is probable that the future life will be considerably expanded as compared to this one and relieved of many of its "limitations and pains." In closing he postulates this significant question: as an argument for the future coherence and expansion of life,—one which will "weigh only with those who can find an affirmative answer."

Does the course of my life seem to conform to some plan, not mine, which is profoundly significant if I am to survive the combination called my body, and which is foolishness if I am not?

His benediction to his readers touches a note of sublimity:

Every book ought to contain things which will make its reader an inhabitant of a larger universe than he was before, and such is peculiarly the duty of any book attempting the themes of this one. Unless it has done that for you it has failed. If it has done that, though I may never know that it has, the labor in it is compensated.

And now good-bye, and thank you all for your patience. We may not meet again here for I leave soon; but whether we do or not perhaps sometime we will meet where meeting will be easier.

His long career as author, editor, and publicist has been infused by the spirit of youth, and his achievements are the result of initiative, character, and culture, combined with a great flow of dynamic energy, the whole guided and impelled by the ideal of the brotherhood of men. He was born in Baltimore in 1840, graduated from Yale and the Columbia Law School, and soon ventured modestly into a publishing business which afterward became "Henry Holt & Co." His work includes studies in economics and civics and two novels. The *Unpopular Review*, a quarterly launched in January, 1914, met with an instant and deserved success. This journal adopts an attitude of cautious optimism in considering questions of public weal.

# THE NEW BOOKS

## RELIGION

"THE OPEN DOOR,"<sup>1</sup> by Hugh Black, is a book of inspiration and faith-inspiration to do our best, and faith in the illimitable bounty of God. The title suggests a certain attitude toward life. In youth we find many doors open; that they ever seem to close is because of our bondage to the flesh; there are always just as many "open doors" to the free spirit. Death is the last doorway, the entrance into the House of Many Mansions, and faith must support us in the belief that just as we needed life, so we also need death for the perfection of our individuality.

"The Reconstruction of the Church,"<sup>2</sup> by Paul M. Strayer, seeks to find a remedy for the decadence of religious influence as exercised by the Church to-day. He finds that it is suffering "under the law of diminishing returns." We have invested more energy, more heart, mind, and soul in it than ever before and with less return. What can we do; how can we bring religion back to the Church? This is the question Mr. Strayer's book answers with a discussion of helpful suggestions. Efficiency must be introduced, methods must be adapted to modern industrialism; we must reclothe the spiritual message in new garments to make it fit the needs of the modern world. Human differences must not be exaggerated and fostered by denominational differences, for only by the Church aiming steadily at the brotherhood of man as taught by Jesus Christ can it regain its lost power and persuasiveness.

It is related that on John Wesley's first voyage to America, he was astonished, during a storm at sea, by the calmness of the Moravians who were on board. Their religious experience had given them such fixedness in God that they were convinced that not even the terrors of the sea could harm them. The psychology of this kind of religious experience and that of the many kinds that are distributed because of natural selection, among the various religious sects, is analyzed in a careful study of "The Psychological Aspects of Christian Experience,"<sup>3</sup> by Richard H. K. Gill. He considers sin to be a "mal-hypertrophy of attention," and that there are as many ways of awakening this attention and focusing it in the "dynamic center of psychic activity" as there are different types of human beings. One man may find salvation in meditation, another in communion with Nature, a third in the orthodox form of the established religion of his country. All are equally right. If the "sawdust trail" of a Billy Sunday arouses a man's wavering conscience and strengthens his good resolves, why, that is right, too. The great danger lies in the emotionalism of religious experience, the danger that the reaction will

plunge the soul back into more profound abysses than those from whence it climbed. Religion, to bring forth righteousness, must take harmonious possession of mind, heart, and will.

Mr. Arthur Christopher Benson's new volume, "The Orchard Pavilion,"<sup>4</sup> will prove of unusual interest to the thoughtful. Three young men take a summer holiday in an old farmhouse in Gloucestershire and meet in the orchard pavilion to discuss their views of life. Each young man represents a different type of mind,—the first the materialistic, the second the artistic, the third the religious. Thirty years later one of the three men buys the farmstead for a summer residence, and once more the three men meet. The first has become a lawyer, the second an author, and the third a clergyman. On the day following their second discussion, the clergyman preaches a sermon which reveals the purpose of Mr. Benson's book,—to impress upon us in these troublous times, when prejudice animates our deeds in spite of good intentions, that "the one and only test of our nearness to God is the way we feel about other people."

An excellent informational book for those who are interested in Sunday-school work is a sprightly narrative written by Frank L. Brown, "A Sunday-School Tour of the Orient,"<sup>5</sup> which describes the experiences of twenty-nine religious workers on a trip through Japan, Korea, and China, undertaken for the purpose of increasing the facilities for the education of children in the Christian religion in the Far East. It is tersely written and copiously illustrated. The frontispiece is a photograph of Henry J. Heinz, whose kindness and generosity made the trip possible.

Several lectures and sermons by the zealous English Congregational theologian, Dr. Sylvester Horne, whose gifts attracted the attention of intellectuals in England and in this country, are published in a volume entitled "The Romance of Preaching."<sup>6</sup> Dr. Bridgman, editor of *The Congregationalist*, writes of his achievements: "As preacher, organizer, author, pastor, and friend, Sylvester Horne did a work in his short life that in volume and quantity made him one of the most remarkable religious leaders of the age."

Mr. Henry B. Carré presents in "Paul's Doctrine of Redemption"<sup>7</sup> a philosophical interpretation of the teachings of Christ as taught by the Apostle Paul, with the object of making clear the fact that Paul expounded the redemption of man as inseparable from that of the cosmos; or that the salvation of mankind is but a chapter of cosmical history.

<sup>1</sup> The Open Door. By Hugh Black. Revell. 224 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> The Reconstruction of the Church. By Paul M. Strayer. Macmillan. 309 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>3</sup> The Psychological Aspects of Christian Experience. By Richard H. K. Gill. Sherman French. 104 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> The Orchard Pavilion. By Arthur C. Benson. Putnam. 136 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> A Sunday-School Tour of the Orient. By Frank L. Brown. Doubleday. Page. 374 pp. \$1.

<sup>6</sup> The Romance of Preaching. By Sylvester Horne. Revell. 302 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>7</sup> Paul's Doctrine of Redemption. By Henry B. Carré. Macmillan. 175 pp. \$1.25.



# POLITICS, SOCIOLOGY, ECONOMICS

MR. SAMUEL McCORD CROTHERS' "Meditations on Votes for Women"<sup>1</sup> urges suffrage to American gentlewomen as a duty to be undertaken solemnly with a deep sense of personal responsibility, for the sake of the advancement of civilization. He finds that the driving force of the movement for equal suffrage is not feminism but Democracy, and he comments crisply that women in expressing their opinions "should be allowed to be as unobtrusive as men." Against the charge that women do not take large or disinterested views of public questions, he brings the accusation that men,—including crowned heads,—do not take large or disinterested views of public questions. But as all public questions must be entrusted to human beings Mr. Crothers is in favor of considering women as human beings and educating them to bear their full responsibility as such.

Mrs. Beatrice Forbes-Robertson Hale, in "What Women Want,"<sup>2</sup> gives a readable, well-reasoned, sympathetic exposition of modern feminism. She defines feminism as "that part of the progress of democratic freedom which applies to women"; and in her analysis of this new freedom for women steers clear of the stragglers who wander on unexplored bypaths of the feminist movement, and avoids the violent radicals, in order to bring to the average woman (and also to the average man) a safe and sane interpretation of the new-old urge that stirs modern women. After an interesting discussion of the years behind the woman of to-day, Mrs. Hale launches into a straightforward analysis of the things women really want, sometimes blindly, sometimes intelligently. After all has been said they resolve into "love and work," as Mrs. Hale aptly phrases it. Love woman must have; it is her heritage, and work she must have, too, in order that her love shall not languish and turn into mere instinct. She does not pretend that the sudden "infusion of women into the world's affairs" will instantly have the result of bringing about a reign of "sweetness and light." Man has his special genius, that of creation and discovery; woman that of ordering and guarding. Man will, as the result of woman's coöperation, rid himself of many burdens such as that of militarism; woman will rise to full appreciation of the social

mother-power she will be able to exercise once she has been trained shoulder to shoulder with man.

Mr. Frederic C. Howe, who is Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York, has been for many years a student of city life and administration at home and abroad. "The City the Hope of Democracy," "The British City: the Beginnings of Democracy," and "European Cities at Work" are three of Mr. Howe's books that have been widely read and have exerted much influence towards the formation of a healthy public opinion in America on municipal questions. His latest work, "The Modern City and Its Problems,"<sup>3</sup> sums up his message in that it shows in a comprehensive way what European cities are doing for the populations under their jurisdiction, and reveals at the same time the backwardness of American municipal governments. However, it is distinctly constructive criticism that Mr. Howe offers, and several of his chapters set forth in a striking and suggestive way the progress that has been made by American cities within recent years. The charter changes in the direction of commission and city-manager systems of government have been studied by Mr. Howe to good purpose and his observations under these heads are instructive. His conclusions are optimistic.

"Corporate Promotions and Reorganizations,"<sup>4</sup> in the "Harvard Economic Studies," is a remarkable compendium of the essential facts in recent experiences of "Big Business." The author, Dr. Arthur S. Dewing, never obtrudes his personal opinions or theories, but confines his task to a marshaling of data. He describes both successful and unsuccessful attempts at reorganization, relating in detail such episodes in financial history as the promotion and failure of the National Cordage Company, the reorganizations of the cordage consolidations; the promotion, collapse, and reorganization of the Asphalt trust, and the ups and downs of the United States Realty and Construction Company, the American Bicycle Company, the United States Shipbuilding Company, and other well-known organizations. This material, which must have been gathered at a vast expenditure of time and effort, is invaluable as a basis of legislation on the trust question.

## STORIES FROM LIFE

ENTHUSIASM, fire, sincerity, and the capacity for intense emotion exhaled from the soul of Serbia,—a country characterized by one of its own statesmen as the most poetic of the Slavonic nations. The psychology of Serbia, as it finds expression in the history of the Serbs, their folklore, epic poetry, ballads, superstitions, and customs, is pre-

sented in "Hero-Tales and Legends of the Serbians,"<sup>5</sup> by Woislau M. Petrovitch. The former Serbian minister at the Court of St. James's, Chedo Miyatovich, has written the explanatory preface. The illustrations are exceptional; they consist of thirty-two exquisite color plates by William Sewell and Gilbert James vividly picturing Serb life.

To rescue the color and atmosphere of a forgotten epoch of American civilization from oblivion and restore it to us in all the freshness

<sup>1</sup> *Meditations on Votes for Women.* By Samuel McCord Crothers. Houghton Mifflin. 81 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> *What Women Want.* By Mrs. Beatrice Forbes-Robertson Hale. Stokes. 307 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> *The Modern City and Its Problems.* By Frederic C. Howe. Scribners. 390 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>4</sup> *Corporate Promotions and Reorganizations.* By Arthur S. Dewing. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 616 pp. \$2.50.

<sup>5</sup> *Hero-Tales and Legends of the Serbians.* By Woislau M. Petrovitch. George G. Harrap & Co., London. 393 pp. 15 shillings net.

and charm of its actual existence can only be compared to the inspiring task of the archeologist, who, digging in the sands of some ancient soil, uncovers the glorious perfection of an antique statue, which but for his toil had been utterly lost to the world. Gertrude Atherton has restored to us Spanish California, the vanished Latin civilization in America, in her two splendid stories "Rezanov" and "The Doomswoman," now republished under the title "Before the Gringo Came."<sup>1</sup> "Rezanov" is the romance of a Russian soldier of fortune who dreamed of a mighty empire on the Pacific. "The Doomswoman" brings us a wonderful heroine, beautiful Chonita Iturbide y Moncada, the ill-starred girl of noble birth, whose love for Diego Estenga, the scion of a rival house, brings her great romance at the price of inevitable tragedy.

Fifteen years ago several young women went into the "moonshine" region of the Kentucky mountains and spent successive summers instructing the mountaineers in simple medicine and hygiene, singing, sewing, kindergarten work, and the art of friendly relationship with one's neighbors. These young women finally started a settlement school at Hindman which has grown and prospered until one hundred children live in it and two hundred more attend day school. These children are trained especially for the life they must lead in their mountain homes. Social service work is carried on and a market is found for the basketry and the weaving done by the women. The nursing and hospital work also deserves special mention. A story of an incident of this work, "Sight to the Blind,"<sup>2</sup> written originally for the *Century Magazine* by Lucy Furman, is now published in book form with an introduction by Ida Tarbell. It is a beautiful interpretation of "the

proper application of the Settlement idea," and most inspiring to those who are really anxious to serve humanity.

James Stephens is the latest Celtic genius to make a flare in the literary firmament. He first came to attention as a poet with two volumes of unusual verse, "Insurrections," and "The Hill of Vision." A delightful book followed the poetry—"The Crock of Gold," a naïve, whimsical medley of personalities, poetry, romance and philosophy—a work especially esteemed by his own countrymen. After this came "Here Are the Ladies," "The Threepenny Bit," that moved his admirers to tears and laughter, and now we have a kind of sequel to the last named work in "The Demi-Gods."<sup>3</sup>

Patsy McCann and his daughter Mary are "trampers." They go up and down the roads of Erin with a donkey and a cart, carefree, and concerned only with a "hunt for food." Down upon the wayfarers descend three angels with crowns and shimmering wings and silken robes of "scarlet, gold and purple." They wish to try tramping for a change with Patsy McCann and the donkey cart, so their grandeur is buried under a tree and Patsy pilfers some clothes as dilapidated as his own for their use. Then the strangely assorted company pass on to bewildering adventures. For those who like to discover hidden wisdom in their reading, it is well to say that the angels tell stories of hell and heaven and all the mysteries of time and space. "Fiaun was an Archangel when he was in his own place; Caeltia was a Seraph, and Art was a Cherub. An Archangel is a counselor and a guardian; a Seraph is one who accumulates knowledge; a Cherub is one who accumulates love. In heaven these were their denominations."

## POETRY AND THE DRAMA

THE valuation of poetry is largely a matter of personal taste. The poem that stirs the depths of emotion in one man may impress the next as a piece of cold verbiage, inasmuch as our appreciations depend largely upon our reflexes, and our reflexes upon the potentiality of our imagination and the scope of our experience. Therefore the business of making a pleasing anthology of the year's best verse is not an easy task, even if one only takes into consideration the consensus of cultivated taste. Mr. William Stanley Braithwaite succeeds admirably in this difficult undertaking. His "Anthology of Magazine Verse for 1914"<sup>4</sup> surpasses its predecessors in the excellence of its poetry, and also in other literary matters contained therein,—the valuable criticism and the interpretative summaries of recent books of verse.

If in the past aught could be brought against Mr. Braithwaite's choices of verse, it might be said that through paucity of our productive range,

he selected a preponderance of purely intellectual poetry that was at times cloying and stifling. This year, owing to the change that has come over the American Muse, we find in the pages of his *Anthology* a return to simplicity and the primitive. We have the roaring "clang-a-ranga" of Vachel Lindsay, the vigorous *vers libre* of James Oppenheim, and the artless story-telling of Conrad Aiken, together with an abundance of other stirring verse, that somehow clears the mind and frees the emotional centers that have become clogged with the finely drawn subtleties of intellectualism. Mr. Braithwaite notes several items of interest; that the quality of American poetry steadily improves; that it can,—still keeping the super-music of true song,—deal with realities; also that the best war poems have so far been written by American poets.

He reminds the newspapers and periodicals of their stewardship in regard to reviewing the books of poetry they receive. Poetry,—so often the voice of spiritual reality,—should not be dismissed with perfunctory comment or supercilious criticism. His summaries are divided into five sections; ten books of poetry for a small library, twenty-five for a larger library, a supplementary list of significant books of verse, forty books about poetry, and twenty-five additional volumes that deal with technique, theory, history

<sup>1</sup> Before the Gringo Came. By Gertrude Atherton. Stokes. 369 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>2</sup> Sight to the Blind. By Lucy Furnam. Macmillan. 92 pp. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> The Demi-Gods. By James Stephens. Macmillan. 316 pp. \$1.30.

<sup>4</sup> Anthology of Magazine Verse for 1914. By William Stanley Braithwaite. Issued by W. S. B., Cambridge, Mass. 205 pp. \$1.50.



of poetry, and matters concerned with the lives, letters and personalities of poets. The ten best books of the year as selected by Mr. Braithwaite are as follows: "The East I Know," by Paul Claudel; "The Single Hound," by Emily Dickinson; "Collected Poems," by Norman Gale; "Georgian Poetry," edited by E. M.; "The Congo and Other Poems," by N. Vachel Lindsay; "The Present Hour," by Percy Mackaye; "The Complete Poems of S. Weir Mitchell," "Songs for the New Age," by James Oppenheim; "The Grand Canyon and Other Poems," by Henry VanDyke, and "The Flight and Other Poems," by George Woodberry.

Mr. Henry Herbert Knibbs knows the West. Incidentally he knows men and horses and the combination gives us real thrills in "Songs of the Outlands,"<sup>1</sup> a book of hearty swinging ballads that are now colorful with the joy of the untrammelled life of desert and plain, and now poignant with the tang of bitter experience. Mr. Knibbs is a second Bret Harte in his portrayal of the "rough diamond" kind of man, who has played the major rôle in the subjugation of the West. "Out There Somewhere" is a ballad calculated to produce wanderlust in the heart of the most home-keeping office toiler; "The Mule Skinner" and "When the Ponies Come to Drink" are capital lyrics. "The Walking Man," a pathetic tale of a cowboy who does penance for the murder of his pony by walking the rest of his life, will bring mists to the eyes of any lover of horses. The best thing about these songs is the impulse to freedom that they infiltrate in the blood. The reader feels at least for a whole minute that he can take "any road at any time for anywhere."

The "Lays of Sergeant Con"<sup>2</sup> are breezy, ramping

rhymes, chiefly refreshing because of their swift flashings of humorous and satirical insight into the social and moral reactions of those who govern and those who are governed in the Philippine Islands. They are the work of Norbert Lyons, associate editor of the Manila *Daily Bulletin*, and were first published in the columns of that paper.

"Flood Tide," a book of sympathetic verse by Carolyn E. Haynes, has had considerable local appreciation. There is a desirable boldness and freedom in the poems, but often obvious poetic imagery mars a fine inspiration. "Pain," "The Toiler," and "Alone" have strength and poetic certainty, and "The Mirror" is a pleasant bit of ironical badinage.

"The Great Galeoto,"<sup>3</sup> the masterpiece of the Spanish dramatist, Jose Echegaray, translated by Jacob Fasset, is now added to the publications of the Contemporary Dramatists Series. It is the most trenchant and widely read of Echegaray's work,—a play in which the leading character cannot appear because the leading character is,—"Society." It depicts the evil workings of a cruel slander upon the lives of innocent persons and reiterates the ancient admonition,—"speak no evil, hear no evil, see no evil." Galeoto was the go-between for Guinevere and Lancelot; Echegaray makes society the "Great Galeoto," and fastens a weight of responsibility upon each member of the social mass. The dramatist has been successively mathematician, statesman, and man of letters. He is eighty-one years of age, and in the last twenty-five years has written sixty plays. In 1904, the Nobel prize for literature was divided between Echegaray and the Provençal poet, Mistral.

## PHILOSOPHY

"EROS,"<sup>4</sup> by Emil Lucka, translated by Ellie Schleussner, attempts to philosophize upon the development of human love between man and woman throughout the ages. Idealistic love is shown to have evolved from the sex instinct of savages and from the sensuous love of the civilized races of antiquity, to the high pinnacle of romantic, mystical, and metaphysical love that to-day is most often found,—as Dr. Lucka thinks,—in the Germanic race, in which he includes the British and North American peoples. The longing for "synthesis" he finds growing more powerful. "The yearning for the absolute, for perfection, no longer separating and selecting, but embracing man as a whole, annihilating body and soul in a higher intuition, the longing for mutual self-surrender, for giving and receiving an undivided self, is growing stronger and stronger." And he adds to this the conclusion at which all mystics arrive: that great love cannot find its consummation on earth, be-

cause the will and longing of love ever reaches "beyond the attainable to the infinite." To the mature mind this book will bring the graciousness of a better understanding of love and life.

If a man wishes to know himself he has only to equip himself with proper knowledge, according to the physiognomists, and look in a mirror, where he can read the indelible writing that his habitual thoughts and deeds have traced upon his features. It is in a measure true that a single peculiarity synthesizes our destiny, so radically have the accustomed acts of our lives altered our features, changed our manners and carriage, and modified the tones of our voices. By way of paradox, it has been said that "Cæsar was assassinated because he was ashamed of being bald; Napoleon ended his days in St. Helena because he was fond of the poems of Ossian; Louis Philippe abdicated the throne as he did because he carried an umbrella," etc. "Character Reading Through Analysis of the Features,"<sup>5</sup> by Gerald Fosbroke, is an excellent work for the beginner in this fascinating field of research. It is published with fifty-six original drawings by Carl Bohnen.

<sup>1</sup> Songs of the Outlands. By Henry Herbert Knibbs. Houghton Mifflin. 74 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>2</sup> Lays of Sergeant Con. By Norbert Lyons. The Times Press, Manila, P. I. 117 pp. 2 pesos.

<sup>3</sup> Flood Tide. By Carolyn E. Haynes. Badger. 85 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> The Great Galeoto. By Jose Echegaray. Richard Badger. 202 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>5</sup> Eros. By Emil Lucka. Putnam. 379 pp. \$1.75.

<sup>5</sup> Character Reading Through Analysis of the Features. By Gerald Fosbroke. Putnam. 193 pp. \$2.50.

# CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

## BOOKS RELATING TO THE WAR

**Austria-Hungary and the War.** By Ernest Ludwig. New York: Ogilvie Publishing Company. 220 pp. \$1.10.

A statement of the Dual Monarchy's case by the Austrian Consul at Cleveland, with a preface by Ambassador Dumba, details of the Serajevo trial, and a description of conditions in Bosnia and Herzegovina from the Austrian viewpoint.

**The Nations at War.** By L. Cecil Jane. Dutton. 228 pp. \$1.

An optimistic forecast of the war's results, from the standpoint of the Allies.

**The War and Democracy.** By R. W. Seton-Watson, J. Dover Wilson, Alfred E. Zimmerman and Arthur Greenwood. Macmillan. 390 pp. 80 cents.

In this volume four British writers present their views of the new responsibilities that have been placed upon the British democracy by the war.

**Life in a German Crack Regiment.** By Baron von Schlicht (Count von Baudissin). Dodd, Mead. 320 pp. \$1.

An exposure of the personal life of members of the German military caste, as represented in the official personnel of the "Golden Butterflies," a regiment exclusively officered by the Prussian nobility.

**America and the World War.** By Theodore Roosevelt. Scribner's. 277 pp. 75 cents.

A book made up of syndicate and magazine articles by Colonel Roosevelt on the subject of American preparedness. From several of these articles the REVIEW OF REVIEWS has already quoted.

**Germany's War Mania.** By the German Emperor, the German Crown Prince, Dr. V. Bethmann-Hollweg, Prince von Bülow, General von Bernhardt, General von der Goltz, General von Clausewitz, Professor Treitschke and Professor Delbrück. Dodd, Mead. 272 pp. \$1.

This is an English attempt to present "the Teutonic point of view as officially stated by Germany's leaders." It is a collection of speeches and writings.

**Alsace and Lorraine from Cæsar to Kaiser, 58 B.C.-1871 A.D.** By Ruth Putnam. Putnam. 208 pp. \$1.25.

A connected sketch of the two provinces that again form a storm-center in the contentions of the great European powers.

**India's Fighters: Their Mettle, History and Services to Great Britain.** By Saint Nihal Singh. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Company. 252 pp., ill. 85 cents.

A stirring and picturesque recital of the deeds of a body of warriors who are now for the first time engaged in battle on European soil.

**England, Germany, and Europe.** By James Wycliffe Headlam. Macmillan. 24 pp. 4 cents.

**Britain and Turkey: The Causes of the Rupture.** By Sir Edward Cook. Macmillan. 31 pp. 4 cents.

**An Englishman's Call to Arms.** Macmillan. 4 pp. 2 cents.

**The Economic Strength of Great Britain.** By Harold Cox. Macmillan. 8 pp. 2 cents.

A series of brochures and appeals by eminent British publicists.

## BIOGRAPHY

**The Story of Wendell Phillips.** By Charles Edward Russell. Chicago. Charles H. Kerr & Company. 185 pp. Fifty cents.

A Socialist's analysis of the great anti-slavery agitator's inspiring career.

**Personal Memoirs of John H. Brinton.** Neale. 361 pp. \$2.

The life history of one of the most distinguished surgeons in the federal army during the Civil War. An introductory note was supplied by the late Dr. Weir Mitchell.

**Life of Turner Ashby.** By Thomas A. Ashby. Neale. 275 pp. \$1.50.

A biography of the famous Confederate cavalry leader who was killed in the second year of the Civil War while in command of all the cavalry in the "Army of the Valley" (Virginia troops).

**Sir John French: An Authentic Biography.** By Cecil Chisholm. Stokes. 152 pp. 50 cents.

A timely sketch of the man who is characterized by Sir Evelyn Wood as "the driving force of tactical instruction in the British Army."

**The Life of Friedrich Nietzsche.** By Daniel Halévy. Macmillan. 368 pp. \$1.25.

A convenient translation of the biography by Halévy which is based on the more elaborate work of Madame Förster-Nietzsche. Introduction by T. M. Kettle.

**Life of Benjamin Disraeli.** By William Flavelle Monypenny and George Earle Buckle. Macmillan. Vol. III (1846-1855). 591 pp., ill. \$3.

The third volume of Disraeli's life covers the important period of British politics culminating in the Crimean War.

**Memories of Forty Years.** By Princess Catherine Radziwill. Funk & Wagnalls. 357 pp., ill. \$3.75.



Anecdotes of such representative English statesmen as Asquith, Morley, Winston Churchill, and Lord Rosebery; of Moltke and Hohenlohe among the Germans, and Tolstoy and Witte among the Russians.

**Makers of America: Franklin, Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln.** By Emma Lilian Dana, New York: Immigrant Publication Society. 205 pp. 75 cents.

Brief biographies prepared for the use of the foreigner in our night schools and libraries as a second or third book in English.

**Sir George Etienne Cartier, Bart.: His Life and Times.** By John Boyd. Macmillan. 439 pp., ill. \$5.

This biography of one of Canada's greatest statesmen is really what its sub-title indicates,—a political history of Canada from 1814 until 1873, embracing the period of federation.

**A Walloon Family in America.** Two vols. By Mrs. Robert W. de Forest. Houghton Mifflin. 705 pp., ill. \$5.

A most interesting narrative of the achievements of several generations of de Forests in the new world. It is far more than a mere genealogy.

## ECONOMICS AND POLITICS

**The Anthracite Coal Combination in the United States.** By Eliot Jones. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 261 pp. \$1.50.

A study not only of the trust movement in its ordinary aspects, but as complicated by questions of railroad control and the ownership of natural resources.

**Conciliation and Arbitration in the Coal Industry of America.** By Arthur E. Suffern. Houghton Mifflin. 376 pp. \$2.

One of the Hart, Schaffner & Marx prize essays, describing the methods of voluntary settlement of disputes in the coal industry. There is a chapter on the experience of Great Britain.

**Problems of Community Life: An Outline of Applied Sociology.** By Seba Eldridge. Crowell. 180 pp. \$1.

An outline, or syllabus, of topics related to the improvement of working and living conditions in New York.

**The Social Commonwealth.** By Bernard A. Rosenblatt. New York: Lincoln Publishing Corporation. 189 pp. \$1.25.

A plan by which the individual may be assured of the necessities of life, while the community is enabled to secure an economic surplus that may be utilized for social progress and a better communal life.

**The Abolition of Poverty.** By Jacob H. Hollander. Houghton Mifflin. 122 pp. 75 cents.

An essay by the Professor of Political Economy at Johns Hopkins University, who believes that "the essential causes of poverty are determinable

and its considerable presence unnecessary." He likens poverty to preventable diseases.

**Neighbors: Life Stories of the Other Half.** By Jacob A. Riis. Macmillan. 209 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Mr. Riis vouched for the truth of these stories. "It is as pictures from the life in which they and we, you and I, are partners, that I wish them to make their appeal to the neighbor who lives but around the corner and does not know it."

**The Middle West Side.** By Otho G. Cartwright. **Mothers Who Must Earn.** By Katharine Anthony. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 223 pp., ill. \$2.

Admirable studies of labor and living conditions in a part of New York City that has never been much exploited by writers on social reform. Miss Pauline Goldmark is directing this investigation, the funds being supplied by the Russell Sage Foundation.

**Boyhood and Lawlessness. The Neglected Girl.** By Ruth S. True. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 143 pp., ill. \$2.

In this volume many striking facts are presented relating to the New York boy gangster and his sister.

**Doing Us Good and Plenty.** By Charles Edward Russell. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Company. 172 pp. 50 cents.

Mr. Russell is regarded by his fellow Socialists as one of the most popular American exponents of their cult. His publishers announce his present volume as "the best American book of Socialist propaganda yet published."

**Capital.** By George L. Walker. Boston: Duke-low & Walker Company. 64 pp. 15 cents.

A vigorous defense of capitalism by the editor of the *Boston Commercial*.

**The Individual and the Social Gospel.** By Shailer Mathews. New York: Missionary Movement of the United States and Canada. 84 pp. 25 cents.

A brief text-book of "applied Christianity."

**Drift and Mastery: An Attempt to Diagnose the Current Unrest.** By Walter Lippman. Kennerley. 334 pp. \$1.50.

A volume made up of shrewd, clear-sighted discussions of current social and economic problems.

**The Creation of Wealth.** By J. H. Lockwood. Cincinnati: The Standard Publishing Company. 225 pp. \$1.

A discussion of modern business problems from a conservative standpoint.

**Secrets of Personal Culture and Business Power.** By Bernard Meador. New York: David Williams Company. 161 pp. \$2.

A series of articles addressed to the American business man and intended "to interest, to entertain, and to intensify the desire to know; a desire to begin the study of mental culture and the acquirement of personal and business power."

**Business Administration.** By Edward D. Jones. New York: The Engineering Magazine. 275 pp. \$2.

The new profession that has to do with "the administration of manufacturing and operating companies under modern conditions" is recognized in this work. The underlying scientific principles are analyzed.

**Money and Banking.** By John Thom Holdsworth. Appleton. 439 pp. \$2.

The first comprehensive text-book of the subject to reproduce and analyze the provisions of the Federal Reserve Act. The author of the work is dean of the School of Economics and Professor of Finance at the University of Pittsburgh.

**Sizing Up Uncle Sam.** By George Fitch. Stokes. 238 pp. \$1.

It would not be advisable to leave a newly-arrived foreigner alone with this book for any length of time, but the dyed-in-the-wool American may be safely entrusted with it. His sense of humor will protect him and help him to see his own foibles.

**Municipal Charters.** By Nathan Matthews. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 210 pp. \$2.

A discussion of the essentials of a city charter, with forms, or models, for adoption, major emphasis being laid on administrative provisions.

**Carrying Out the City Plan.** By Flavel Shurtleff in collaboration with Frederick Law Olmsted. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 349 pp. \$2.

A treatise of the practical application of American law in the execution of city plans.

**Civic Righteousness and Civic Pride.** By Newton Marshall Hall. Sherman, French. 198 pp. \$1.25.

A discussion of civic problems from the ethical standpoint.

**The Judicial Veto.** By Horace A. Davis. Houghton Mifflin. 148 pp. \$1.

Three essays contributing to the conclusion that deciding the constitutionality of statutes is a political and not a legal function.

**The Doctrine of Judicial Review.** By Edward S. Corwin. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 177 pp. \$1.25.

An interesting presentation of the legal and historical basis of judicial review.

**The Anti-Trust Act and the Supreme Court.** By William H. Taft. Harper's. 133 pp. \$1.25.

Ex-President Taft's discussion of the decisions under the Sherman Law, with his views as to their effect on business.

**Progressive Democracy.** By Herbert Croly. Macmillan. 430 pp. \$2.

The author of "The Promise of American Life" analyzes in this new book the modern progressive democratic movement with reference to its origins, and outlines present tendencies.

**Open-Air Politics.** By Junius Jay. Houghton Mifflin. 236 pp. \$1.25.

A brilliant discussion of syndicalism and allied topics by "an American, eminent in public life and of more than national fame."

## REFERENCE BOOKS

**The Desk Standard Dictionary of the English Language.** Abridged by James C. Fernald. Funk & Wagnalls. 894 pp., ill. \$1.50.

An abridgement of the Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary in a volume of convenient size for desk use. In the space of 900 pages 80,000 terms are defined and illustrated.

**Routledge's New Dictionary of the English Language.** Edited by Cecil Weatherly. Dutton. 1039 pp. \$1.25.

A work of English origin, although partially based on the American Webster. The editor also makes acknowledgments to the "Century Dictionary."

**Foreigner's Guide to English.** By Azniv Beshgeturian. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company. 268 pp., ill. 60 cents.

A book designed for teaching English to foreigners in evening schools. It is based on the "object and action" method as applied by the author in the evening schools of Boston.

**Familiar Quotations.** By John Bartlett. Little, Brown. 1454 pp. \$3.

This tenth edition of a standard book of reference has been revised and enlarged by Nathan Haskell Dole, the original compiler, John Bartlett, having died ten years ago at the age of eighty-five.

**The American Whitaker Almanac and Encyclopedia for 1915.** Edited by C. W. Whitaker. Doubleday, Page. 648 pp. \$1.

An Americanized "Whitaker," containing "9000 indexed facts concerning the trade, production, population, government, and general statistics of every State in the United States.

**Foster's Complete Hoyle: An Encyclopedia of Games.** By R. F. Foster. Stokes. 701 pp., ill. \$3.

The original Hoyle wrote on comparatively few games and died more than a century ago, but his name stands to-day as a sign of authority. His successor is Mr. R. F. Foster, an expert on practically every indoor game.

**Salesmanship.** By William Maxwell. Houghton Mifflin. 234 pp. \$1.

A suggestive and vivacious treatment of a somewhat humdrum topic.

**How to Play Baseball.** By John J. McGraw. Harpers. 151 pp. 60 cents.

A standard manual for boys by one of the baseball heroes of our day.

**Who's Who 1915.** Macmillan. 2376 pp. \$3.75.

This English cyclopedia of contemporary biography has reached its sixty-seventh year of issue. The celebrities that it sketches are not confined to those of British birth, but many continental Europeans, as well as some Americans, are included.



# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—THE DAY OF LOW-PRICED STOCKS

**S**USPENSION of dividends on the United States Steel Corporation's \$508,302,500 common stock and the successful resumption of new bond issues on a large scale have been the main features of the month's financial news bearing directly upon the investor. Both may be traced to the war. For months all new security issues were blocked, and now that financial conditions are no longer demoralized it is no wonder that railroads, municipalities, and other corporations should flood the market with their obligations. Nearly \$20,000,000 more new bond issues were floated in this country in January than in the entire four months of August, September, October, and November.

Early in February the market had been so well cleaned up as far as the higher-grade bonds were concerned that no one could longer question the absorbing power of the public, however huge the future supply might prove to be. But history repeats itself, and after every panic or "near" panic the resumption of activity in bonds and stocks has progressed regularly from the stronger to the weaker securities. There is a time when nothing is salable. Then the best State and municipal bonds find a market, first at low prices, then at higher. Then the best railroad bonds are taken up, and before long people become intensely interested in low-priced, non-dividend paying stocks. We have now reached that stage, just as we reached it not long after the panic of 1907.

### *What Shall the Small Investor Buy?*

Where one individual will buy a single first-mortgage bond of the Pennsylvania Railroad at \$1035, which pays \$45 a year interest and is as certain to pay that interest for the remainder of its life as anything on this earth is certain, there are literally hundreds of persons who will buy, say forty shares of stock at \$25 a share, which pay no dividends and may never pay any.

There is something in human nature that craves many, many pieces of paper. Benjamin Franklin's injunction never to buy a thing only because it is cheap may be quoted in vain, even though many low-priced stocks are not even cheap in the true sense of the

word. No doubt a careful analysis would reveal that far more money has been lost in low-priced stocks than in excessively high-priced ones. The commonest reason for very low prices is a minimum of income-producing power, either actual or potential, whereas the commonest reason for very high prices is a potential income-producing power of high degree,—witness such stocks as Procter & Gamble, Sears, Roebuck & Co., Standard Oil, Singer Manufacturing, and many others.

Much testimony has recently come to hand regarding the increased buying power of the very small investor, and it is far from the purpose of this article to discourage the small investor. One recent estimate places the proportion of odd-lot dealings to total stock transactions on the Stock Exchange at 32 per cent., and it is well recognized that odd lots (those under 100 shares) are mostly of an investment nature. A broker familiar with this class of business recently said that frequently odd-lot buyers acquire one share each of five different companies, and he believes this kind of buying is changing the character of the market, tending to diminish its irregular and speculative aspect.

### *Don't Buy Anything Because It's Cheap*

But if this power of the public to absorb small lots of stock in enormous aggregates is to be rightly directed, there should be no lack of warning against the weaker, the improperly so-called "cheap" stocks. There is a happy medium in these things. It is not necessary, or perhaps always wise, to buy stocks which sell for several hundred dollars a share. But is it obviously not wiser to buy, say a share of Atchison preferred at \$98 a share to yield 5.10 per cent., or of St. Paul preferred at \$127 to yield 5½ per cent., both with their long, untarnished record, than four shares of Erie common at \$23 with no dividend record whatever and no early prospects of one?

It is thought that low-priced stocks may in the future sell higher. The further point that people can afford to buy Erie or Southern Railway common who cannot afford higher-priced stocks is utterly disingenuous, because the man who cannot afford to buy

one share of Atchison preferred at \$98 and pay for it outright, or who cannot afford to buy one \$100 bond, has no business purchasing securities anyway. He should go to a savings bank, unless his purpose is solely to gamble, in which case solicitude ceases.

Mention of Erie and Southern Railway implies no criticism of the present excellent physical and financial management of both companies. They are merely used as illustrations, reasons for the low prices of these stocks being well known. The point is that no matter how much these properties improve in the future it will take an enormous advance in the price of their common stocks, and scores of other low-priced shares, to make up for the loss in dividends for many years past. The simple fact that most buyers of non-dividend stocks forget is that only a few years of 5 per cent. interest or dividends at par, together with compound interest, on conservative, investment securities will outstrip even the most sensational stock-market advances. It is the old story of tortoise and hare.

#### *The Fortunes of "Steel Common"*

But it has been mostly in regard to United States Steel common that bankers, brokers, and financial editors have been flooded with inquiries both before and after the corporation passed its dividend on January 26. In the last three months of 1914 the corporation did not earn by \$5,606,000 even its preferred dividend, drawing upon surplus for that amount. Indeed earnings in December were so small that for an entire year at that rate interest on the company's bonds would not have been earned by \$17,000,000.

Chairman Gary said that "business conditions are now steadily, although slowly, improving, and it is hoped that the resumption of dividends may not be long deferred." Of course the steel industry picks up with great suddenness. But it took two years after the slump of 1904 to restore common stock dividends, and that slump was nothing like as terrible in the business of the company as the decline of the last year or two. In the fourteen years of its existence this corporation has paid out \$216,006,351 in dividends upon its common stock, or an average of 3 per cent. a year. This stock has varied between  $8\frac{3}{8}$  and 91 in price. Quarterly earnings have been as high as \$45,503,705 in 1907, and as low as \$10,933,170 in 1914.

Now it is impossible to predict to what heights Steel common may rise in the next few years, or to what depths it may fall.

Irrespective of this speculative feature it is clear from the figures just adduced that the stock is not suitable for investment purposes, at least for persons who wish any peace of mind. Probably the stock will rise in the next couple of years, but with stock that originally represented only "water" and is still, and always will be, the most vulnerable portion of the capital of a company whose net earnings fluctuate up and down 400 per cent. in a few years' time, prediction must be only guesswork. Moreover, at this writing the stock is artificially held up by a system of minimum prices, and no human being knows how much it might have fallen when dividends were stopped if there had been no artificial minimum price. As it was, the market price fell twelve points in a week, or \$60,000,000.

#### *Investors' Interests*

Yet no small proportion of the owners are investors. One test is according to the length of time common stock has been held by the same persons. It is known that about one-quarter of it has been held by the same persons for the last four or five years. Another test is the number of owners of very small amounts, only a few of these being speculators. As far back as 1911 there were 2994 owners of one share, 2086 of two shares, 1287 of three shares, 604 of four shares, 2440 of five shares, 6989 of from six to ten shares, 6399 of from eleven to twenty-five shares, 4786 of from twenty-six to fifty shares, and 3478 from fifty-one to one hundred shares. Foreigners hold 1,241,128 shares of the stock. The Dutch Syndicate alone has 356,290 shares. The total number of stockholders of both classes exceeds 131,000. More than 50,000 employees own stock. Probably the actual number of common stockholders approaches 80,000, and if fully half, or even three-quarters of these are frankly speculators, nevertheless a great number of persons who would never admit to being speculators have suffered by the stoppage of dividends.

Further evidence of the present wide distribution of corporate securities and the seriousness of reducing dividends was the announcement recently when the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad cut its common-stock dividend from 6 to 5 per cent. that 15,000 stockholders hold less than twenty shares apiece, that 8231 women hold an average of thirty-six shares each, that only 200 persons own more than 1000 shares each, and that the Deutsche Bank of Berlin holds \$18,000,000 of the stock for 12,000 German citizens.



## II.—INVESTMENT INQUIRIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 619. SIX, SEVEN, AND EIGHT PER CENT. SECURITIES

I have a few thousand dollars to invest in good securities, and think perhaps you can give me the information I need. Where can I place my money so that it will pay 6 per cent. or more, and yet be a quick asset ready for use in my business if necessary? Are the securities of Southern and Western States paying 7 and 8 per cent. as safe as those of States where the rate is only 6 per cent? Are such securities salable on short notice? Is it possible to get an absolutely safe bond yielding 8 per cent? How is it possible to tell the honest broker from the faker?

It is difficult, even in this period of unusually high interest rates on investments, to obtain safe, quickly convertible securities to yield a full 6 per cent. For a business man, investing under circumstances such as you suggest, short-term notes, or bonds of early maturity, are probably best. In the last issue of this magazine we mentioned a few representative offerings of notes, such as the Argentine Republic 6's, Brooklyn Rapid Transit 5's, and United States Rubber 6's, yielding respectively 6.10, 5.30, and 5.60 per cent. A little inquiry among the specialists in this class of investments would yield a wider selection, and possibly discover something that would appeal to you more strongly.

We have frequently pointed out that it is impossible to draw a fair comparison in general terms between securities of a given type originating in one section of the country and yielding, say, 7 per cent., and those of the same type, originating in a different section and yielding a lower rate of income. There are a good many things other than lack of underlying security that may cause this difference in rates, especially in the category of mortgage investment, where the difference is perhaps most frequently met with. In buying mortgages you could go as high as 7 per cent. with a high average degree of assurance, but we believe that if you sought to obtain as much as 8 per cent. it would be necessary for you to exercise extremely careful discrimination. Usually the only people who go into that class of mortgages are those fitted by training and experience to exercise personally the necessary discrimination.

We should not care to go as far as to say that no safe bond could be created and sold at a price to yield as much as 8 per cent., but in all our experience we never saw one offered on such attractive terms that was not more of a speculation than an investment.

Unfortunately there seems to be no simple rule for distinguishing between the honest broker and the faker. The difficulty here is that the irresponsible folk have adopted so many of the methods of the responsible ones that the matter is one which usually has to be determined on the basis of information and experience. It may be said, however, that investors will seldom find cause to regret looking with suspicion upon the broker whose literature is devoted to telling how exorbitant percentages and extraordinary profits can be obtained.

### No. 620. NO READY RECIPE FOR MAKING SPECULATION PROFITABLE

I am able to save a thousand dollars or so a year which I want to put away for a rainy day. How would you advise me to invest it? My idea is to take advantage of big waves in the stock market; that is to say, when all stocks are low, as they seem to be at present, invest in not more than two shares each of a number of different stocks, sell out when they go up, and then invest in mortgages, which I would again turn into stocks when the market fell. This whole plan depends on a knowledge of when stocks are low and when high. No one, of course, expects to buy at the lowest and sell at the highest, but it does seem as if it should not require a very great knowledge of the market to buy and sell so as to gain at least ten points. I should very much appreciate any advice you may be able to give me, especially the names of any books on the subject.

Even if your plan were sound in theory, there are no books that would tell you how to put it into successful operation,—that is, no books that would give you a ready recipe for making that kind of speculation profitable. The "big waves" in stock-market prices of which you speak are those recognized by one of the most satisfactory theories ever evolved on the subject, namely that of Charles W. Dow. They are the prices which in the long run are controlled by intrinsic values. To make yourself a competent judge of such values would require a great deal of study and experience. And, like everyone else who has made the experiment, you would doubtless find yourself hopelessly confused at times in endeavoring to distinguish between market prices based upon such values, and the prices which are the result of the multitude of extraneous influences at work in the market from day to day and from week to week. We think perhaps if you were to read a few books like "The Work of Wall Street," "Pitfalls of Speculation," "Cycles of Speculation," and "Stock Prices: Factors in Their Rise and Fall," you might discover for yourself the dangers involved in the stock-buying side of your plan. But granting your ability to work that out satisfactorily, we think you would find it necessary to choose some form of investment other than mortgages to supplement the stock purchases. Your funds, while not tied up in stocks, would necessarily have to be so employed as to make possible their quick conversion into cash, and quick convertibility is a virtue of mortgage investment that is conspicuous by its absence. There are many mortgage bankers who make it a practise to take care of all legitimate demands of their clients for cash, either by repurchasing their holdings at a small discount to cover handling charges, or loaning money on the mortgages as collateral, but we doubt that any of them would care to meet regularly such demands as the operation of your plan would involve.

The best advice we are able to give you is to discard the idea of trying to make your savings grow through stock-market speculation, and confine your investments to the mortgages, contenting yourself with the satisfactory yield of income that is to be obtained with safety and peace of mind on that type of investment.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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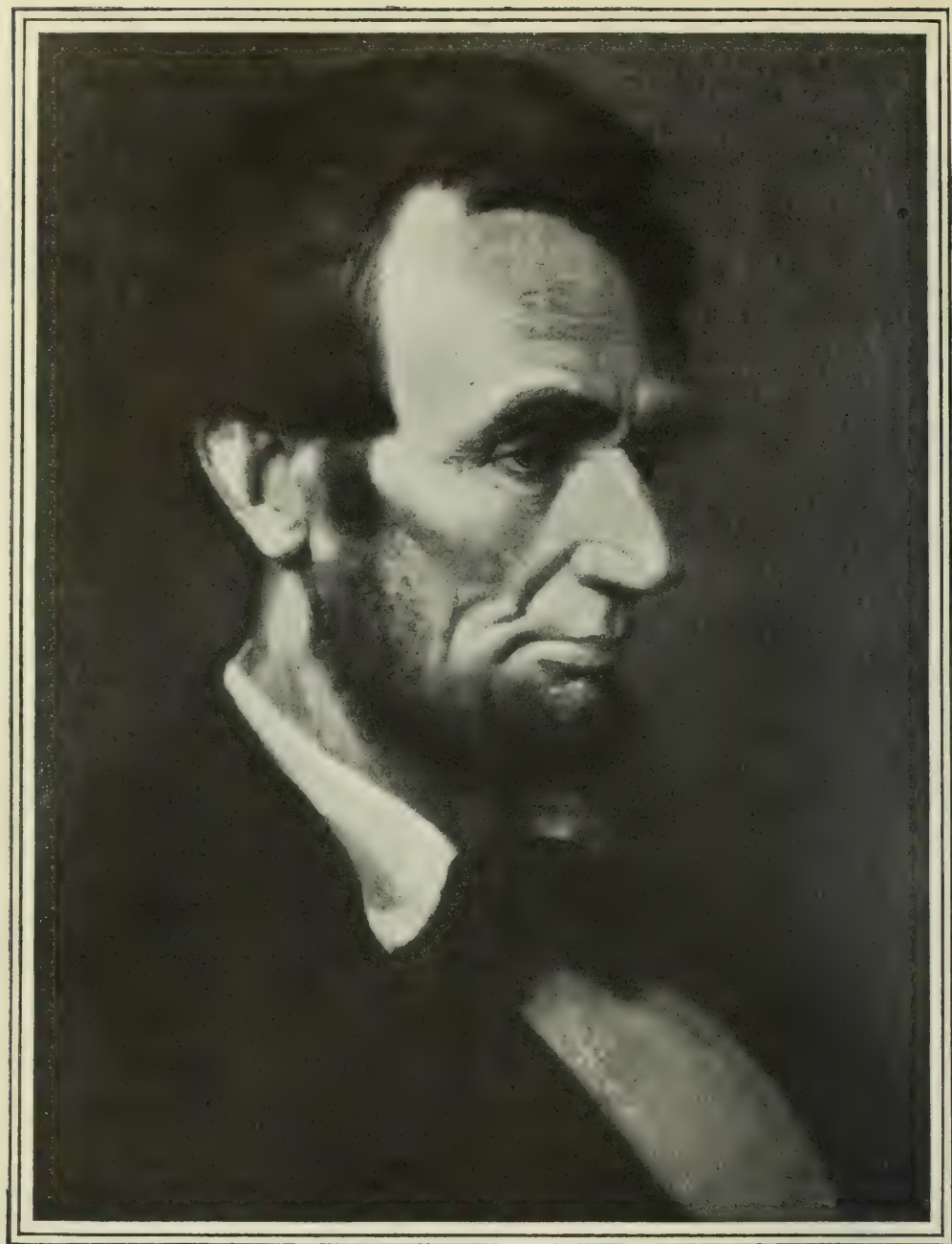
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#### A NEW PORTRAIT OF LINCOLN BY DOUGLAS VOLK

(Apropos of the fiftieth anniversary of the death of the Great Emancipator, we are enabled to present this reproduction of the portrait recently completed by Douglas Volk, the son of the sculptor Leonard Volk, who made the famous life mask of Lincoln in 1860 and in the same year completed a portrait bust from life which he later chiseled in marble. This last work was destroyed during the Chicago fire in 1871)

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LI

NEW YORK, APRIL, 1915

No. 4

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Lincoln—  
Bismarck*

The two preëminently constructive statesmen of the last century were Lincoln and Bismarck. In Germany they are now celebrating the centenary of Bismarck, who was born April 1, 1815. The present month brings to us in America the fiftieth anniversary of the end of the Civil War and the death of Lincoln. President Lincoln accompanied the Federal troops when they entered Richmond April 4, 1865; Lee surrendered to Grant at Appomattox April 9; Lincoln was shot in the evening of April 14 and died the following day. Wholly without prejudice or sectional feeling, Lincoln was intensely occupied with plans for the restoring of harmony and the quick return of the seceded States to their full autonomy and their proper places in the Union when his death plunged the nation in grief. He had the same conception as Jefferson's of the paramount importance of national union, and of maintaining our continental republic upon the basis of the federal system.

*Lincoln's  
Statesmanship*

For his leadership all parts of the country ought now to be profoundly grateful. If he could have lived a few years longer, we should perhaps have been spared some unfortunate chapters of our subsequent history and should have worked out policies, both domestic and foreign, that would have made us a greater and stronger nation than we are to-day. But he accomplished enough to earn secure fame as a statesman of supreme rank. He was an American in whom were blended the characteristics of all parts of the country in a way that made him national in the full sense; a humanitarian of great vision, in whose heart there was no animosity towards any nation or race of mankind. The world's greatest need to-day is of leaders of the Lincoln mold, who will believe that the welfare of each nation can be made to harmonize with that of all the others. Hating war, Lincoln was, nevertheless, impelled to lead a colossal four

years' struggle on behalf of an American unity that should make for permanent peace and human liberty.

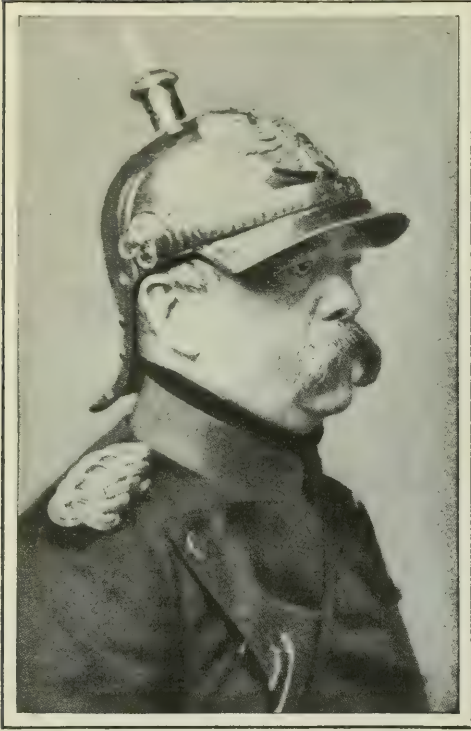
*What Would  
He Do To-day?*

If he were alive to-day he would probably hold that our country ought to ascertain and then to express in clear terms the common sentiment of the non-belligerent countries. He would stand for the world's liberation from war, upon the basis of principles and agreements that would remove the causes of strife, and provide a higher structure than national sovereignty. He would have America strong enough to make its voice heard in the councils of the fearful and the self-seeking. He was like the greatest of our early statesmen,—Washington, Franklin, and Jefferson,—in the breadth of his sympathies and in his grasp of the large essentials of human progress. His Americanism had in it no element of hostility towards any other nation; on the contrary, his principles and methods, if adopted by the leading peoples of Europe, would have led the world, long before this time, to practical disarmament and to some form of union that would have made each nation, whether small or large, as safe as Rhode Island and Pennsylvania and Arkansas find themselves under the arrangement by which they accept a modified sovereignty for themselves, and yield to the federal union the right to adjust all possible differences and to manage many common concerns.

*Bismarck's  
Career*

The period of Bismarck's preëminence as a European statesman was exceptionally long and eventful. He had from early youth been growing steadily in experience as a Prussian who had devoted his entire life to the study of public affairs and to an official career, until at about the time when Lincoln was elected President he had become clearly the most influential of Prussia's governmental group. A few months after Lincoln became President,





PRINCE OTTO VON BISMARCK

(At about the time of the forming of the Triple Alliance)

Bismarck became Prime Minister of Prussia and also Minister of Foreign Affairs. His brief war that added Schleswig-Holstein to Prussia occurred in the year 1864; and in 1866 he waged the war against Austria that brought him still more territory. Then came in 1870 the great war against France, with the immediate formation of the German Empire, and the beginning of Bismarck's Chancellorship, which lasted almost twenty years,—until he resigned in March, 1890, through his disagreement with the present Emperor. He presided at the Berlin Congress of 1878, and he formed the Triple Alliance in 1883. It may well appear, after another half century gives the historian a longer perspective, that Bismarck's acts and policies resulted in more profound disturbances and changes than did those of the first Napoleon.

*His Transforming Influence* Out of his policies grew militarism in its present phases. His domestic reforms gave Germany a systematic care and provision for the welfare of the working classes that the whole civilized world has been imitating in one way or another. He guided Germany to a place of great power, and to an economic and intel-

lectual development of astonishing brilliancy. But he failed to provide for Germany's future safety by removing causes of misunderstanding and promoting European harmony. To his credit it should be said that he did not wish to annex Alsace-Lorraine, but acquiesced in the views of Baden, Wurtemberg, and Bavaria, these German states holding that their defense as a part of the new empire required the annexation. A much better kind of defense would have been such an arrangement with France as would have removed enmity and would have resulted in unfortified boundaries and small armaments. In 1877, Russia had conquered Turkey at great sacrifice, and had arranged terms of peace. Under Bismarck's lead, supported by the British and Austrian delegates, the Congress of Berlin in 1878 thwarted Russia, rearranged southeastern Europe, and rendered inevitable a series of wars that has followed, including the present one. There was ample room and opportunity in the world for all the great nations and all the small ones; and if the talents of Bismarck, Beaconsfield, and the other nationalist and imperialist statesmen of that period had been less devoted to schemes of aggrandizement for their respective countries, and more devoted to the finding of ways to insure the future peace and well-being of all Europe, the entire world might to-day be glad to join Germany in celebrating the anniversary of Bismarck's birth.

*Another Centenary*

Just a hundred years ago, on March 20, the great Napoleon, who had escaped from the island of Elba, entered Paris. Three months later, on June 18, was fought the battle of Waterloo. Prussians and British fought together to destroy the mastery of a man who was not content to aim at the security and progress of revolutionized France, but who used his power as a menace to all other European states. Bismarck was born a few weeks before Napoleon's final overthrow. It is very strange that this centenary year of Waterloo finds Russia, France, and Great Britain arrayed with a deadly determination to crush the empire that Bismarck built, on the ground that the German imperial aims of the present time are as menacing to the rest of the world as were the Napoleonic aims a hundred years earlier. Contemporary opinion, particularly British, found Napoleon a monster of evil. Yet other nations had their faults, and the British Government was not wholly altruistic in its policies and its diplomacy. It had felt itself so virtuous in its struggle

by sea and by land against the French as ruled by Bonaparte that it did not see how anybody could properly find fault with any of its methods. And so it interfered with American commerce; issued orders in council wholly cutting off our trade with France; seized American ships on the pretext that they harbored recreant British sailors. And thus was brought on the Anglo-American war of 1812, with its sea fights, the destruction of our public buildings at Washington by the British, Jackson's victory at New Orleans, and the promulgation of peace on February 18, 1815, by virtue of the treaty signed at Ghent a few weeks before.

*England's  
Attitude,  
Then and Now*

Just now England is in quite the same state of mind towards what she regards as the unspeakably wicked Prussians as early in the last century she exhibited towards Napoleon as the exponent of militarism. There is the same determination to crush the German Empire that there then was to destroy that of Napoleon. There is the same disposition to regard the cause of England as so unassailable in its virtue as to justify a good deal of disregard

of the rights of neutrals. But the analogy is not one to be followed too completely. The people of the United States are not feeling themselves affronted in any quarter, are not exasperated, have not suffered any interdicted injury or wrong from any of the governments at war, have no grievances to avenge, and will not drift into a belligerent attitude merely because of interference with neutral commerce in the British and German waters that are strewn with mines and infested by submarines.

*"Rights" End  
When War  
Begins*

War is so desperate a recourse when the foremost powers of the world are engaged in it that what we call "rights" cease to exist, and nothing is likely to be considered except in terms of war power. Germany's plea for invading Belgium was "necessity." England's plea for interfering with neutral commerce is of exactly the same kind, and is put upon the same ground. Germany did not mean to touch the hair of a single Belgian citizen, nor to take so much as a loaf of bread without paying full value. In the German view, Belgium's vast mistake lay in standing up for "rights" when a great war had broken out, in the presence of which rights disappear because the appeal has been made to force. In its very nature, war is the denial of rights of all kinds, private and public. When two small nations are at war, it is true that the rights of neutrals are respected. But this is not because the neutrals have rights, but because they have power. When, however, great nations are at war, the rights of neutrals are less likely to be regarded, unless the neutrals have both the power and the disposition to translate their rights into terms of force.

*Why Neutral  
Opinion  
Was Weak*

War came so suddenly, and upon so vast a scale, that there seemed at first no way to make neutral opinion influential. Italy's neutrality was not detached and impartial, but was based solely upon an absorbing anxiety about Italy's own interests as closely involved in the conflict. The other European neutrals were small, and for the most part in precarious positions. Europe had not been accustomed to reckon much with South American public opinion. The United States, therefore, was conspicuous as the one great neutral country relatively detached from the conflict, and representing what was left of the world's normal public opinion. Italy continued nominally a member of the Triple Alliance, while



© by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE NEW BISMARCK MONUMENT IN NUREMBERG  
(Erected as a part of the celebration of the centenary)



her leaders were divided, part wishing to remain neutral and many others favoring an attack upon Austria for the sake of acquiring desired bits of territory. Spain, while intending to remain neutral, was bound by many obvious facts to keep the good will of England and France. The coasts of Holland and the Scandinavian countries are washed by the troubled waters of the sea-war; and, like Switzerland, they are too small and too near the scenes of conflict to make their voices heard, either as regards the rights of neutrals or (what is more important) the laying down of arms and the full resumption of the rules of right and reason among nations. Thus the roar of conflict has been too mighty for the mild voices of neutrality.

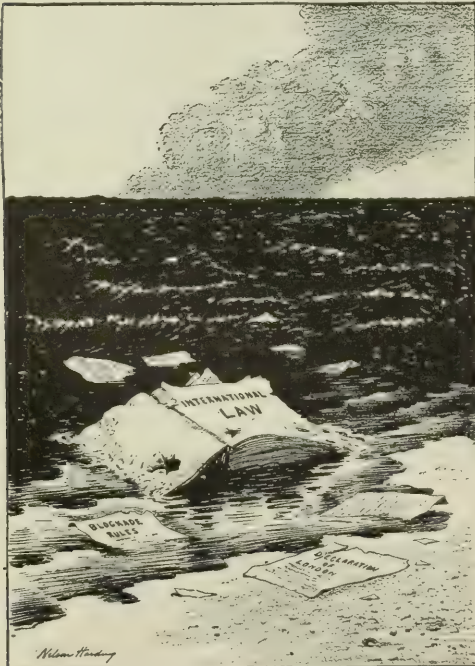
Too Much at Stake for Formulas

The obvious fact is that for all the neutral nations of the world, —even for the republics of North and South America,—the rights of maritime commerce are outweighed by other considerations. Moreover, in critical times, laws of any sort will fail to operate if there be no strength or power behind their enforcement. Treaties and other arrangements that give support in ordinary times to the body of rules and customs which we call "international law," will almost inevitably be disregarded when the greater part of the

world is at war, and when the remaining part is not strong enough in the military sense to secure from the belligerents the observance of a rule or a custom that is found to conflict with military necessities. In our opinion, it might have been valuable at the outset of the war if President Wilson had invited other neutral governments to join a conference and formulate some clear and simple principles. South America and the smaller European states have diplomatists and international lawyers who are men of great repute and wisdom; and it might have been valuable if they had been brought together to find common ground and to give united expression to neutral opinion. Such a conference could have denounced the strewing of mines in the open sea. It could have stated fair and sensible principles on the subject of contraband. These utterances might have carried weight, and such a conference might have helped to find a basis for ultimate peace. But when all this is said, it remains true that the war is on too vast a scale to be very much affected in its methods or its duration by the formulas or the opinions of those countries that have not as yet been drawn into the conflict. Such a war cannot be run upon recognized rules or schedules.

Some Practical Distinctions

Calm and sensible people, in times of emergency, are willing to recognize a vast difference between their theoretical rights and the damage or the indignity that they suffer from some disregard of those rights. If your neighbor trespasses upon your property with spite and insult, harms your crops or your animals, perchance burns your barn, you are bound to consider his bad motives as well as the actual damage. If he has done you some indirect damage by interfering with your rightful use of the common highway, while assuring you of his good will and explaining what he regards as his unprecedented emergency, you are privileged to be as forbearing as you please. If it happens that he is very powerful and desperately in earnest, you may think it quite sensible not to precipitate a quarrel with him. If your inconvenience is very great and you think it best to keep the record clear for the sake of your future rights, you may take your pen in hand and write him a few letters, asking him exactly what he is about, and telling him that he has no right to monopolize or dominate the common highway for his own private purposes. But if his emergency should be very great,—and if his conscience should be clear on the



LAW IS "FLOTSAM" IN WAR TIME  
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)

point that he is doing you no great actual damage, but rather is acting in harmony with your permanent interests,—he will probably treat your letters politely, try to keep you from misunderstanding his motives, and then give his undivided attention to the business at hand in order to finish it and restore normal conditions.

*The Official  
Position*

President Wilson and the officials of the State Department are American citizens who have taken oaths of office, and happen just now to be entrusted with great responsibilities. They are obliged to see that the Government of the United States, on its part, observes towards the belligerent countries the duties of neutrality as set forth in the recognized rules and maxims of international law. Since our Government has to behave correctly as a neutral towards these powers, it must expect them to reciprocate by showing respect for its rights as a neutral. Our officials cannot well do otherwise, therefore, than to set forth our view of rights while observing our obligations. It does not follow that we must cease to act in good temper as a neutral, even if the powers at war adopt measures towards each other that affect and limit neutrals in the rights that have hitherto been recognized. One of the first duties of a neutral is to treat belligerents with impartiality. On the other hand, one of the first questions to be asked when neutral rights are offended is whether or not the offense is direct or indirect, and whether its application is general or special.



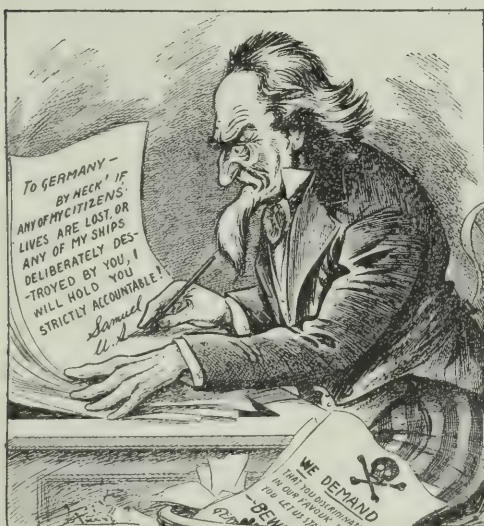
[WHAT GERMANY EXPECTS OF UNCLE SAM]

It is to be hoped that the United States will return some such friendly and conciliatory reply as this rejoinder to the English reply to her note

From the *Kladderadatsch* © (Berlin)

*No Direct  
Offence  
is Charged*

There is nothing in the notes to belligerent governments emanating from our State Department that even hints at the view that either Germany or England has taken any measures intended directly to injure neutrals. Nor is there anything to show that our government regards the actions of any of the warring nations as aimed at the United States in particular and not at other neutrals. We find that England and Germany have been striking hard at each other, and that their methods, as the war goes on, interfere with some of the commercial rights of neutrals that they had admitted and respected in the earlier months of the struggle. For several months, our protests had to do with arbitrary definitions of contraband, with undue detention of ships and cargoes under pretext of thorough search, and with interruption of shipments to Italy and the smaller Baltic countries, on the ground that goods might be taken across boundaries to Germany and Austria. After some fluctuation of policy, England allowed the shipment of cotton to Germany. The new chapters began when England undertook to starve Germany out by deciding to treat all foodstuffs as contraband of war if intended for German consumption. That such a policy would provoke retaliation and lead to a series of harsh and unusual methods could have been foreseen.



[WHAT THE BRITISH EXPECT OF UNCLE SAM]

Uncle Sam will stand no nonsense, the "old man" replies to the German blackhand letter

From the *Star* (Montreal)



*England's  
Arbitrary  
Action*

This decision was based upon a pretext too arbitrary for serious acceptance. It is permissible, under recognized principles, to treat as contraband of war any supplies intended for the direct maintenance of armies. Thus canned beef from Chicago, ordered by German army agents for the use of the fighting hosts in Belgium and northern France, would obviously be subject to British capture and confiscation as contraband. But ordinary supplies of wheat or flour, for the use of the people of Hamburg or Berlin, when carried in neutral ships, are not contraband, by usual rules. Some weeks ago the German municipalities in conjunction with the general government and various industrial and private agencies, entered upon a close supervision of the prices and distribution of food, in order that there might not be unseemly speculation, and consequent hardship to ordinary families, during the period remaining before the crops of 1915 become available. The British Government, under some unfortunate influence, chose at this point both to quibble the facts and also to draw fanciful inferences. It declared that all food supplies in Germany had become militarized; that no distinction remained between supplies for the army and supplies for the civilian population; and that all foodstuffs could therefore be treated as contraband of war. But this was not true. Food had not become militarized in Germany, more than in England. The military authorities continued to buy their own supplies in a perfectly distinct way. Municipal oversight of the bread supply in Germany was in no sense upon a military basis, and the military authorities had no connection with it.

*Retaliatory  
Measures*

This English attitude towards food for Germany was declared on February 2, as explained in these pages last month. German retaliation took the form of an announcement, made on February 4, that after February 18 the waters around the British Islands would be treated as a war zone, and that Germany would endeavor to prevent ships of all kinds from sailing to or from Great Britain. Neutrals were warned to keep out of these waters, although Germany's intention was to strike at British rather than at neutral ships, in her submarine campaign. On March 1, England in turn gave notice, in a somewhat vague way, that she proposed to adopt means by which Germany would be wholly cut off from commerce by sea.

*Suggestions  
of  
America*

The United States Government made prompt protests to Germany, and asked England to explain the means she intended to employ. On February 20, Secretary Bryan sent a note to London and Berlin, suggesting a reasonable form of agreement. It proposed, first, a regulation of the use of floating and anchored mines; second, the limiting of submarines to attacks upon warships; third, the discontinuance of the use of neutral flags for disguise; fourth, Germany was to agree that foodstuffs from the United States should be consigned to agencies of our Government, who should use certain specified methods to see that such food went only to non-combatants; fifth, Great Britain was asked to agree that foodstuffs thus consigned would not be interfered with or detained. This admirable note was highly creditable to our authorities at Washington. Germany's reply, dated March 1, discusses our note point by point and practically accepts them all, with certain provisos that are in themselves entirely reasonable, with one or two exceptions that Germany would probably not have insisted upon.

*England's  
Rejection*

The English reply was not made until March 15. A great part of it is devoted to denouncing Germany for having done the things that the American suggestion was intended to stop. Sir Edward Grey's answer is an arraignment of German methods, and an attempt to justify the starvation policy by the use of quotations from utterances of such German statesmen as Bismarck and Caprivi. It ignores the earlier British claim that food was made contraband because of Germany's governmental regulation, and descends to the plane of justifying civilian starvation as a war method. This note was immediately followed by another from Sir Edward Grey, answering the American note of March 5, which asked very specifically how the British Government meant to apply its new methods. The note of our Government had been a very searching piece of analysis. The British reply alludes to the proposed measures as "a blockade."

*The New Kind  
of "Blockade"*

The explanations given show that it is intended to subject Germany to all the hardship of a real blockade, without employing the methods which have hitherto been regarded as constituting a blockade in international law. A proper blockade requires the stationing of warships at the entrance to an enemy's ports

or along its coasts, in such a way as actually to prevent the incoming and outgoing of ships. England's new kind of blockade proposes to seize ships anywhere in European (including Mediterranean) waters, if they carry cargoes of German origin, or if their cargoes of American or other origin are intended for German use. This policy, of course, in international law is technically piracy, while the German submarine policy is technically not warfare but murder. The British note is careful to explain that the new policy will be enforced with the least possible damage to neutrals, that confiscation of neutral ships is not intended, and that the actual ownership of cargoes will be carefully recognized. The English notes do not state the case of the Allies very felicitously, but the meaning is clear enough. The Allies are simply inventing an attack upon Germany, analogous in its effects to a blockade, but different in its methods. A blockade is permissible when actually put into successful operation. German submarines compel the Allies to give their blockading cordon a wider sweep and a different character. A neutral government, under blockade conditions, does not protect the blockade-runner. Certainly the British have as much right to declare their new kind of



THE QUESTION OF FOOD SUPPLY

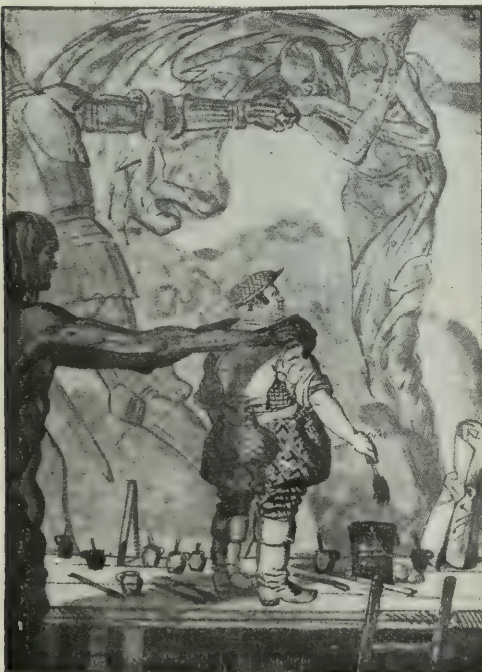
THE KAISER: "Why don't you take it away from him for me?"

From the *World* (New York)

blockade against Germany, as the Germans have to declare their war zone around Great Britain. It is regrettable that America has not been able to persuade the belligerents to accept her suggestions. But no intentional or special wrong has been done to the United States or its commerce; and our inconvenience is one of the unavoidable consequences of so colossal a war. Meanwhile, our authorities at Washington have written notes that will bear the most careful study, and are doing what they reasonably can to maintain our position. We are glad to present in this number an estimate of the career and the current work of Mr. Lansing, the Counsellor of the State Department, who is the reputed author of the series of American notes.

Facts to be  
Borne in  
Mind

Doubtless American opinion was somewhat aroused last month by newspaper articles presenting in some detail the analogies between the Orders in Council of the struggle between England and France, more than a hundred years ago, and the Orders of last month. The theoretical and legal parallels are remarkable. But the practical situations are as different as can well be imagined. In 1807 we were a seafaring people, living along the Atlantic coast, trading with all parts of the world, and owning a great number of ships. The French and English retaliatory orders affected us harshly in their nature, and very injuriously in their application. But at the present time we are not doing the world's carrying trade, even in small part; and our



ENGLISH THREATS

He who paints on the wall the specter of hunger may himself be seized by its pangs.

From *Jugend* (Munich) ©



exchange of our own commodities for those of Europe is almost entirely done under foreign flags. Such shipping as we have can keep out of European trade with no appreciable loss to this country. As to the wheat and cotton and various supplies that we have to sell, the buyers may come to our ports, pay for the commodities, and take them away at their own risks. This is a very fortunate practical situation. Considering the magnitude of the war, it is amazing that we should be put to so little inconvenience.

Remember  
England's "Cotton Famine"

Those who might be in danger of losing their equanimity, and of saying hard things against

England or any other European power on account of these interferences with our commerce, ought to give some study to the contrasting facts of the period that ended just one hundred years ago, and then to the facts of the period that ended just fifty years ago. We have none of the practical grievances of Jefferson's and Madison's administrations. On the other hand, let us remember what our own blockade of the Southern coast meant to Great Britain, to France, and in lesser degree to Germany. For a period of several

years we cut off the cotton supply upon which manufacturing centers in those countries had long relied. Our war subjected them to terrible hardships. For certain mistakes made during the war, England paid in cash afterwards, upon the award of a tribunal of arbitration. This world war is a frightful calamity, to be regretted very profoundly. The great issues, involving the welfare of mankind, must rest heavily upon our minds and consciences. We must minimize our business inconveniences, while preparing for the exercise of all possible influ-

ence in favor of a wise and permanent readjustment of conditions at the end of the war.

*The Two Novel "Blockades"*

In favor of the new Anglo-French form of blockade is the fact that it will presumably be effective, because of the great number of warships possessed by the Allies and the ease with which light-armed auxiliaries may be used for this kind of cruising service. Against the German kind of submarine blockade of Great Britain is the demonstrated fact of its relative inefficiency. A good many small merchant ships have indeed been sunk, most of them British but a few of them neutral. Yet the great movement of freight

and passenger traffic to and from the British islands has proceeded steadily; so that the German submarine campaign, while causing dread and anxiety, is in no sense having the effect of a blockade. Germany's recklessness in marine warfare has been illustrated by the exploits of her ranging cruisers, in the earlier part of the war, and by the deeds of the two or three that have escaped capture. Last month, for example, the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* steamed unexpectedly into the harbor of Newport News for repairs.



Photograph by American Press Association

THE WILLIAM P. FRYE  
(American sailing vessel sunk by the German cruiser *Prinz Eitel Friedrich*)

She was a fast passenger ship, converted into a cruiser at Tsing-tao, China, when the war broke out. She had sunk many merchant ships belonging to the Allies, and had also been guilty of the shocking offense of sending a fine American sailing ship, the *William P. Frye*, to the bottom of the South Atlantic, for no other reason than that the *Frye* was carrying a cargo of wheat, presumably for English use. Since it was understood that Germany would disavow the act and make compensation, there was no prospect of diplomatic trouble.



**Made in America!**

„Der Teufel hol's! — Sind doch ein zartfühlendes Volk, diese Amerikaner!“

“DEVIL TAKE IT, BUT THESE AMERICANS ARE CERTAINLY A SYMPATHETIC PEOPLE!”  
(Supposed to be uttered by the wounded German, after reading the inscription which the cartoonist has put on the shell: “Brave Germans, we pray for you—Ammunition Factory of Jonathan of America”)

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

*The Tribe of  
War-time  
Penmen*

Most of our American newspapers and public men are showing good sense in their dealing with war issues, and are not bothering about the ill-tempered attacks upon the United States that are appearing with almost equal frequency and virulence in the German and the English press. There are journalists, even in the fighting countries, whose utterances show something of the reasonableness of normal times. But generally speaking, the journalism of countries engaged in fierce war cannot contribute anything to a sane international public opinion. The attacks of some of the English editors upon the United States are not worth considering. It would have been rather fortunate if the whole tribe of English writers of books, pamphlets, and newspaper articles upon the war had been sent at once to the trenches, along with the writers of France. They are the victims of a kind of mania, and should not be taken seriously. Obviously the same thing is true of a number of writers in Germany. The soldiers and the men of action are not malignant. Ferocity is largely confined to the scribblers, who manufacture many of the atrocity stories in order to fan the flames of hatred. France sets the better example.

*Is Selling  
Munitions  
Wrong?*

The German journalists and cartoonists are making many attacks upon the United States for selling war supplies to the Allies. It is not a business that humane Americans are proud of. If at the very beginning of the war,—before such a decision could have had an unneutral bearing,—our Government had placed an embargo upon arms and war supplies, we might have had good reason ever afterwards to congratulate ourselves. But it does not seem feasible to forbid the private manufacture and sale of guns as articles of commerce, at a time when such a prohibition would benefit one side exclusively. President Wilson has made this point clear to all who have appealed to him. If we had forbidden such exports at the beginning, Germany would have been somewhat better off, but not enough to reckon with. Immense factories for small arms would have been quickly developed across our border in Canada, and in one way or another the Allies would have obtained their supplies, regardless of American factories. The German and Austrian arms factories have grown rich in the business of selling war goods to belligerents for decades past. As for American arms, Uncle Sam needs them for his own defense.





Photograph by International News Service, New York

DISTRIBUTING BREAD TO THE POOR IN VIENNA

mination to try to keep the German women and children from obtaining food from abroad in case of need. But we are not convinced that any dire need exists at present. Everything will depend upon the fruitfulness of this year's field crops and gardens.

*Is the War  
Nearing Its  
End?*

Again the question of the duration of the war has been under discussion. Certain English financial writers have been predicting a very early conclusion of peace. Some American authorities believe the war will last till Christmas, others until next spring or summer, while still others think it may go on for several years. Kitchener's new army is supposed to be moving steadily from the training camps of England to reserve stations in France, in readiness for the aggressive spring campaign for the recovery of Belgium. Germany is reported to have brought her soldiers through the winter with unexampled care for their strength of physique and their cheerfulness of spirit. We know less now than we seemed to know two

*Food for Every-  
body in  
Germany*

The British determination to shut food out of Germany raises again the question of Germany's actual condition. We explained in these pages last month the reasons why we still held to the view that the official care to protect food supplies did not indicate starvation, but quite the contrary. Individuals returning from Germany and Austria tell us that things have seemed surprisingly normal all winter. Senator Beveridge, in a brilliant article contributed to *Collier's*, refers to Berlin as showing no signs of distress. Mr. Laurvik, whose interesting experiences in obtaining pictures for the San Francisco Exposition are recounted elsewhere in this number (see page 462), bears similar testimony. He had been in Berlin, for example, three times since the war,—first in August, again in September, and finally in the middle of February. Even during this last visit, when in London and New York there were reports of starvation and rioting in Berlin, he found life in that city quite normal, the restaurants, theaters, and hotels being crowded. "There was," he informed us, "plenty of food, at normal prices; only a few things had been advanced, and those not over 10 per cent." He had come almost directly from Vienna and Budapest, and had found the prices of food hardly as much disturbed there by the war as in New York. We cannot approve of the English deter-



A GLIMPSE INTO THE FUTURE

(That is, if the war should really last as long as the English believe it will. We shall not allow ourselves to be starved out. [The cartoon, showing private gardens being turned into food-producing areas, is apropos of the report that the Emperor Francis Joseph's palace gardens were to be utilized in this fashion])

From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)

months ago about the condition of the Russian army. The general situation as spring opens is well described by Mr. Simonds in his contribution this month (see page 435), which considers the political as well as the military aspects of the struggle. Our many readers who follow his articles from month to month with unflinching appreciation are entitled to know that Mr. Simonds has now become associated with Mr. Reid (son of the late Ambassador and long-time editor) in the editorial conduct of the New York *Tribune*. In this month's instalment Mr. Simonds devotes particular attention to what he regards as the approaching acquisition of Constantinople by the Allies, and to the position of Italy and the smaller neutrals, particularly Rumania and Greece.

*Italy's  
Momentous  
Problem*

As these pages are closed for the press, the news indications point with increasing probability to the early outbreak of war between Italy and Austria. Prince von Bülow, as German Ambassador at Rome, had for months been striving with all his diplomatic skill and prestige to keep Italy from going to war. The reasons pro and con have been amply set forth in earlier numbers of this REVIEW. Italy's ambition to acquire the province of Trentino, which is naturally Italian territory and is wedged between Venetia and Lombardy, is easy to understand. The province of Trieste has also an Italian character as respects people and traditions; but its possession is not essential to Italy, while on many accounts it is very essential to Austria. Prince von Bülow has tried to arrange a plan that would assure Italy something in case

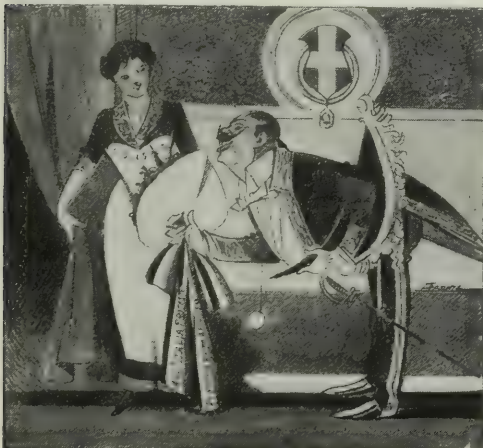


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THE DUKE OF THE ABRUZZI

(As an admiral in the Italian navy, Prince Luigi Amadeo, Duke of the Abruzzi, has been given command of Italy's fleet of new dreadnoughts)

of a German victory. But his proposals do not go far enough to satisfy Italy, while they go much too far to be accepted by Austria. Meanwhile the Allies have nothing at all to offer Italy in case of their success, unless Italy is willing to come to their aid in conquering the Germanic empires and ending the war. It is a sad time for the aged Francis Joseph, whose Government started the European conflagration by its attack upon Serbia. He is now facing the imminent danger of an attack from Italy, his ally of twenty-two years, at the very time when he is fighting Russia, the dreaded enemy on account of whom he had entered the alliance with Germany and Italy.



VON BÜLOW, AS THE GERMAN AMBASSADOR TO ITALY

From Fischietto (Turin)

*If Turkey and  
Austria Fail*

If, as seems likely enough, the Allied fleet should make its way through the Dardanelles to Constantinople, and Italy should enter the war, Greece and Rumania could hardly be restrained from endeavoring to seize the lands that they covet and regard as rightfully theirs. There might follow a somewhat speedy elimination of Turkey from the war, and Austria in turn might be compelled to seek a separate peace. Thus Germany would be left to contend alone against enemies im-





© Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE ALLIED FLEET IN THE DARDANELLES, PHOTOGRAPHED FROM THE FRENCH BATTLESHIP "SUFFREN"

(This picture represents the British and French battleship fleet in action against forts near the entrance of the Dardanelles. For a number of days in March the Allied fleet, led by the English superdreadnought *Queen Elizabeth*, with her 15-inch guns, was reported to be making remarkable progress in reducing the forts on both sides of the river-like straits. But the task of going to Constantinople met with obstacles. On the 18th, Turkish mines sank three battleships, the *Bouvet* [French] and the *Ocean* and *Irresistible* [English]. Several smaller vessels were reported as lost, while other battleships were said to have been put out of action by shell fire from the forts)



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

A SCENE NEAR THE FRONTIER, BETWEEN RUSSIA AND TURKEY SHOWING THE TEMPORARY CAMP OF GREEK AND ARMENIAN REFUGEES

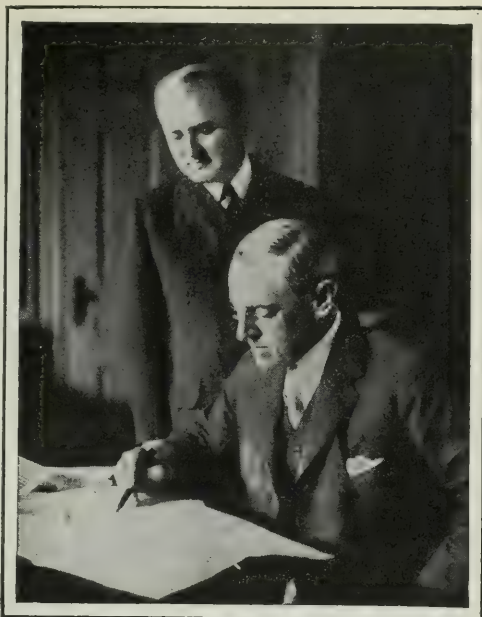
mensely superior in resources of all kinds. The making of peace would then become a question of granting Germany terms that could be accepted in preference to prolonging her defense to the point of exhaustion and ruin. But much awaits Italy's action.

*Binder-twine and "Neutral" Diplomacy* A somewhat curious illustration was afforded us by the Mexican situation last month of the manner in which war in one country may affect millions of people in another. Progreso is the chief port of Yucatan. Carranza and his enemies were struggling for control in that region, and a gunboat had been sent there from Vera Cruz to enforce a stoppage of exports. It happens that there is only one important article of shipment, and that is sisal, a grass which furnishes a hemp-like fiber from which common twine is made. It seems that we import about two hundred million pounds a year from Progreso, with which to supply the twine that a million harvesting machines will use for binding the sheaves of our wheat, rye, barley, oats, and certain other crops. We needed this material at once, in order to have it prepared and distributed in time for the June harvest that begins early in Louisiana, Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas. Secretary Houston realized the pressing nature of the emergency, explained it to the President, and Carranza was informed by telegraph that the embargo must be lifted. An American cruiser took the place of the Mexican gunboat at Progreso, and the waiting vessels were rapidly loaded with their cargoes of sisal. Circumstances alter cases. In the time of our Civil War the European governments considered whether or not they might demand that we lift the blockade and allow them to have a supply of cotton. They gave up the idea; but the American farmer demands and receives his Mexican supply of binding twine.

*In  
Darkest  
Mexico*

The general situation in Mexico changes too rapidly to be followed in any close detail.

General Carranza for some time past has made his capital at Vera Cruz. General Villa is the ruler of the north, with his headquarters at Chihuahua. The nominal Presidents in the "convention" series have faded out of sight one after another. General Obregon, who held Mexico City for the Carranza or Constitutionalist element, withdrew on March 9 and left a dangerous situation. Railway connection with Vera Cruz was shut off, and many foreigners of



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THE PRESIDENT AT WORK, WITH SECRETARY TUMULTY

various nationalities at the capital city were in grave peril. A well-known American, John B. McManus, was murdered in defending his own home. At this point the troops of General Zapata again entered Mexico City,—Zapata, as our readers must remember, being in alliance with Villa, and having a good deal of authority south of the capital. In Yucatan the factions have been fighting with various fortunes. President Wilson gave renewed attention to Mexico last month, and secured the consent of all leaders for the withdrawal of foreigners from Mexico City under the auspices of the United States. About 5 per cent. of the Mexican population is under arms and engaged in the business of rapine, robbery, and general devastation at the expense of the other 95 per cent. and of all foreign interests. The pretext that these people are fighting for liberty or for principles of any kind can no longer be entertained.

*Japan  
and  
China*

There is more of opinionated comment than of ascertained fact in the newspaper talk about the designs of Japan against China. It is not wise to assume that Japan is deliberately taking advantage of Europe's struggle to tear up all the agreements, to which she herself was a party, respecting the integrity of China and the equal rights of commercial nations to do business with the Chinese.



Japan has demanded a time extension of the lease under which she occupies Port Arthur, and has been seeking various railway and mining concessions. England and Russia have interests that would be affected if Japanese demands upon China were too sweeping or monopolistic. We are in no manner concerned, except for the broad and impartial doctrine of the "open door" that Japan has heretofore joined us in supporting.

*Two Years of  
Wilson*

Upon the expiration of the Sixty-third Congress, on March 4, it was definitely stated that President Wilson would not call the new Sixty-fourth Congress for an extra session. It was also announced, however, that the President would give up his plan of an early visit to the Pacific Coast and would devote several weeks to a close and uninterrupted consideration of foreign problems and policies. With the 4th of March he had completed the first half of his term of office. Mr. Burton, the retiring Senator from Ohio, who is well qualified to speak for the best element of the Republican party, declared in New York on March 18 that President Wilson's course in relation to the European war had been wholly praiseworthy. He also commended the President for non-intervention in Mexico, although he regarded the Administration's theory of a Mexican solution,—through favoring one faction as against the other,—as having been wholly mistaken. We are in the midst of world affairs of great magnitude, and must avoid cavil and dissension in so far as possible.

*Some  
Criticisms*

The most serious criticism, perhaps, of the President is that he has worked through party, at a time when all other countries are ignoring party lines; and that he thinks and acts in comparative isolation and solitude, under conditions which might seem to have required the advice and counsel of the most experienced representatives of all sections and elements in the nation. His partisan speech in January at Indianapolis was severely criticized, and his forcing Congress into the most serious deadlock in its history over the Ship Purchase bill, last month, was ill-judged, because to have won the fight would have been too costly a victory. It would have exhibited his power to force his own judgment as against a strongly preponderant public sentiment. As we remarked last month, such a measure as the Ship Purchase bill could only be justified upon the

ground that it was commonly accepted, without party divisions, as a necessary method of meeting an emergency.

*The  
Naval  
Bill*

In the last days of the session, the appropriation bills were the sole absorbing interest, and all were passed except the Post Office and Indian bills, which were carried over because of disagreement about certain details. The country was particularly concerned about the Naval bill, which, as finally passed, provided for two additional dreadnoughts, six destroyers, two sea-going submarines, sixteen coast-defense submarines, and a million dollars for the development of the navy's aeroplane service. The bill provides for a naval reserve of honorably discharged seamen, and makes some changes in official organization and rank. If the world should recover sanity and provide for permanent peace, these authorized warships would be superfluous long before they could be completed. At the present rate of proceeding, it takes five or six years to get an American dreadnought into commission after the money has been appropriated. Thus the *Pennsylvania*, which is the largest of our ships now in the water, was launched last month. It will presumably take at least another year to equip and complete her, and her keel was laid three years ago,—some time having previously elapsed in completing plans and letting contracts. In England and Germany they build dreadnoughts in about a quarter of the time that we allow. The total appropriations for the two years of the Sixty-third Congress have amounted, in round figures, to \$2,231,000,000. Probably 20 per cent. is wasted.

*The  
New Trade  
Commission*

President Wilson took ample time to select members of the Federal Trade Commission that is to supervise the methods of interstate industrial corporations, somewhat after the analogy of the railroad supervision exercised by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the banking and currency functions of the Federal Reserve Board. The new commission absorbs the functions of the Bureau of Corporations in the Department of Commerce; and the head of that bureau, Hon. Joseph E. Davies of Wisconsin, becomes one of the five members. The second in the list is Edward N. Hurley, who has been president of the Illinois Manufacturers Association and identified with the regular Democratic organization of his State. The third is Hon. William J. Harris of Georgia, who



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

#### THE FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION

(Whose business it will be to regulate trusts and industrial corporations, superseding the Bureau of Corporations, and relieving the Department of Justice of its preliminary inquisitorial functions as regards the enforcement of the Sherman anti-trust law. Seated, from left to right, are: Edward N. Hurley, Joseph E. Davies, and William J. Harris. Standing, are: William H. Parry and George Rublee)

was active as chairman of the Democratic State Committee in supporting Mr. Wilson's candidacy, and was afterwards made Director of the Census. Fourth in the list is William H. Parry, of Seattle, Wash., formerly editor of the *Post-Intelligencer*, manager of a ship-building plant, and a very active citizen. The last name is that of Mr. George Rublee, accredited to New Hampshire, although he came originally from Milwaukee and has in recent years practised law in New York City as a member of ex-Senator Spooner's firm. The legal and practical qualifications of the board seem to be well assured. It will have to feel its way by degrees into a useful kind of service to the country.

western and southern States, had petitioned the Commission for an increase in rates on grain, live stock, meat and packing-house products, fertilizer, hay, coal, coke, fruit, and certain other commodities. The railroad representatives estimated that the proposed advances would add \$10,000,000 yearly to the net income of the western transportation lines. The State Commissioners who are opposing the increases filed statements attempting to show that the advances would result in \$70,000,000 of increased income.

#### *The Plea of the Railroads*

The arguments now put forth by the western roads do not differ materially from those presented to the Interstate Commerce Commission last autumn by the eastern lines. The railroad statisticians point to the increases in wage scales amounting in 1914 alone, in the case of the forty-one railroads represented at Chicago, to \$85,000,000, as compared with the scale of wages obtaining in 1900. During the same period taxes rose from \$14,000,000 to \$42,000,000, or about 191 per cent.

#### *The Western Roads Ask for Higher Rates*

On March 4, hearings began in Chicago before Winthrop M. Daniels, a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission, in the matter of the request of the Western railroads for an increase in freight rates. Forty-one roads, operating about 98,000 miles of track in the



These factors, together with the markedly higher cost of equipment and supplies, the cost of new terminals and of legislative requirements for safety and service, brought it about that in the year 1914 these western roads earned in net income only 3.8 per cent. on the cost of their road and equipment, which in that year stood on their books at \$5,078,000,000.

*Effect on Credit and Service* The railroad representatives point to their present difficulty in raising the money which they must have to meet outstanding obligations and to make improvements and extensions. A business showing a return of only 3.8 per cent. on the cost of the plant is clearly not one which will attract investors. Thus, whereas these roads have been accustomed in better times to borrow money at an interest cost of from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  to 5 per cent., they are now forced to pay 7 per cent. or more to persuade capital to go into so unremunerative an industry. A very serious result of the situation is the inability of the roads to use issues of stock to capitalize their extensions and betterments. Capital being too wary to purchase partnership in a business showing such low earnings, the only resort left is the bond and note issues at high interest rates, and thus it has come that the ratio of stocks to total capital liabilities has fallen from 46 per cent. in 1901 to 38 per cent. in 1914, while in the same period the ratio of bonds to total capital has risen from 54 per cent. to 63 per cent. Every student and observer of railroad organization and finance recognizes that this tendency of capitalization toward a preponderance of bonded indebtedness is the most serious of danger signals. The spokesmen for the railways appearing at Chicago add that twenty-nine of them must this year borrow over \$100,000,000 to take care of maturing obligations, and that the total money necessary, merely for this purpose of satisfying maturing debts, is \$423,000,000 in the next seven years.

*Encouraging Decisions for Railroads* In March, the Supreme Court handed down its decision in a North Dakota case which, while not of great pecuniary moment in itself, is of distinct importance to the railroads. The Court decided that a State cannot make a rate on a particular class of traffic so low that the railroad fails to make a reasonable profit on that class, even if it can be successfully maintained that the road receives a satisfactory net income from the total of its

operations. In another case decided in March, the Supreme Court denied the right of the State of West Virginia to enforce the two-cent-a-mile passenger rate on the ground that it did not result in a reasonable profit to the carrier on that particular item of its business. The railroad world and the financial community were cheered by these evidences that the transportation systems of the country have in their present critical situation a sympathetic hearing in the highest tribunal. The two decisions were added to the encouragement of the recent rate increase in the east, the referendum vote in Missouri favoring the repeal of the full crew law, the vigorous and intelligent work toward the repeal of full and extra crew laws in New York and other States, the hopeful outlook for an increase in rates on the western roads, and evidences that leaders of both great political parties are coming to recognize that the railroad situation is critical.

*The United States a Creditor Nation* In August, the first month of the European war, exports from the United States were smaller than imports by some \$20,000,000, leaving this country in debt to foreigners by that amount. Since August an exporting movement has been in progress, stimulated by the unprecedented demand of Europe for our foodstuffs, for cotton, and for supplies and munitions of war, that has brought about results unprecedented in the history of our foreign trade, and which, if continued in anything like their present proportions, will establish this country securely in the position of a creditor nation. For the four months following August, the adverse balance of trade was turned by the rapidly arising volume of exports, aided by the decrease in importations, into a favorable balance of \$153,000,000 for the period. But the really stupendous change has come in the last three months. For December, January, and February, the excess of exports over imports in favor of the United States reaches the record figures of \$411,000,000. In the middle of March there seemed to be no signs of a falling off in this mighty export trade or of the net balance in favor of the United States. This favorable balance was, indeed, for the second week in March no less than \$47,000,000, establishing a week's record for the history of the nation. It is estimated by conservative financiers that in the calendar year we may well send to foreign countries goods of a value more than \$1,000,000,000 in excess of the value of the goods they send to us.

*The  
"Invisible  
Factors"*

With the other nations of the earth owing us for a single year a billion dollars,—being the difference between the value of the goods we export and the value of the goods they send us,—people are asking whether New York is to become the financial clearing house of the world in place of London, as one of the indirect results of the great war. It is true that over against the huge balance of trade in our favor, as it is now forecasted, there must be set certain factors which do not appear on the surface and which cannot be calculated so definitely as the figures of exports and imports. These "invisible factors" are the expenditures of Americans abroad, money sent out of the country by relatives and friends, freight and insurance charges on the imports, funds carried out of this country by emigrants, and returns upon foreign investments in this country. It happens to be true in the present situation that in the face of the totally unprecedented excess of exports, these invisible factors to be deducted from our favorable balance are smaller than ever before. Obviously the expenditures of the American travelers abroad will be negligible this year, and funds carried out by emigrants will be at ebb tide. Sir George Paish has estimated that the item of freight and insurance charges is probably not more than \$25,000,000. Competent statisticians have put our annual net return on indebtedness abroad at \$300,000,000,—from which a deduction of \$50,000,000 should be made for returns on American capital employed in foreign countries. Adding to these offsetting items the remittances to Europe by relatives and friends of the laborers, the statisticians figure that from the face figure of our favorable balance there should be deducted perhaps \$500,000,000. On this basis we should for 1915 have a final net balance in our favor of more than a half billion dollars.

*How Will  
Europe Settle  
With Us?*

This does not, however, allow for the return from foreigners of our securities which they have held and now sell back to us. The total of our securities held abroad is generally estimated to be about \$6,000,000,000; it is certain that during the last few months a considerable fraction of this great total of bonds and stocks has been sold back to Americans, although the situation is too complicated to determine just how much. But at any rate it is difficult to see how Europe will settle her growing balance of indebtedness

to America in any other way than by returning yet more of these securities. The summary way of settling the current debt would be by sending gold to New York; but in the first place, the countries at war will not give it up, and in the second place, it would not be desirable from our point of view, as we have a plethora of gold at present.

*New York as the  
World's Money  
Market*

Whether or not New York is destined to take its place permanently as the financial center of the world, it is very plainly now the place to which foreign nations are turning to obtain emergency funds and credits. In the past two months, loans have been made in New York to Argentina, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, Germany, Canada, and other countries. The supply of gold in the United States is at a record figure, and money is loaned readily on demand at 2 per cent. or less. It is expected that before the end of the war a large volume of government securities of the warring powers will be sold in this country, bearing rates of interest that would have seemed out of all reason only a short year ago.

*Wheat Dealers  
Watching the  
Dardanelles*

Wheat was not the smallest contributor to the enormous trade balance in favor of the United States, noted in the preceding paragraphs. So late as the middle of March the demand from Europe for the cereal had shown no signs of diminishing, and every day was showing on the average a million bushels starting across the Atlantic. When the news came in the latter part of February that the Allies had made a successful attack on the forts at the mouth of the Dardanelles, and as the impression grew through the following days that the forcing of the historic straits was imminent, apprehension that Russia's bottled-up stores of grain would soon come from the Black Sea to swamp the market led to a sensational fall in the prices of grain. The first week in March showed a loss of more than thirty cents a bushel from the highest price. Further consideration of the world situation as regards wheat and cereal foodstuffs generally has evidently led dealers and financiers to some skepticism concerning any swamping of the markets by Russian wheat. It has been pointed out that last year's crop was a short one in Russia, and in Hungary and Rumania as well; that in fact, the United States was the only country which produced an unusually large yield. This, taken with the inevitable larger de-





Photograph by American Press Association, New York

DR. WALTER F. RITTMAN

(The Government chemist who has discovered new processes for producing gasolene, dyestuffs, and explosives from petroleum)

mands of war times and with the probability that the Russian government would discourage any immense movement outward of important foodstuffs, refocussed attention on the continued current demand for shipments from America, and brought the price of wheat by the second week of March nearly back to the high figures of the year.

*The Government and Gasolene* It is estimated that during the past five years the number of motor vehicles in use in this country has more than quadrupled, having reached 1,500,000. The consumption of gasolene by these vehicles is enormous and when added to the requirements for exportation and for other purposes, it makes a total annual demand very nearly equalling the present production of 25,000,000 gallons. It is well known that the supply has not been increasing as rapidly as the demand and this fact made doubly welcome the recent announcement by Secretary Lane, of the Interior Department, that Dr. Walter F. Rittman, chemical engineer of the Bureau of Mines, had discovered a process that will greatly increase the output of gasolene from petroleum. This process will utilize not only crude oil, but residues remaining from former distillations by the old process, and even the oils from the California fields, which have heretofore yielded practically no gasolene.

The independent refiners of the country, by taking advantage of this new process, will be able to compete in the manufacture of gasolene with the Standard Oil Company, which controls the only patents in this industry that have been shown to be commercially profitable. Dr. Rittman's discovery will be patented in the name of the Government in order to prevent monopoly, and it will be made immediately available to all responsible manufacturers.

*Dye-Stuffs and Explosives*

Secretary Lane made known, at the same time, the discovery of another important chemical process, also by Dr. Rittman. This includes the manufacture from crude petroleum of toluol and benzol, which have heretofore been obtained from coal tar, and are important bases for the manufacture of dye-stuffs and high explosives. Germany's long preëminence in these industries has been accepted by American manufacturers almost as a matter of course, and there are still many chemists who firmly believe that if any process for the cheapening of dye-stuffs were practicable, some German would long ago have found it. Yet Dr. Rittman's experiments seem to show that his method of obtaining toluol and benzol from petroleum may become more economical than the German method of obtaining these products from coal tar, since Dr. Rittman not only makes the toluol and benzol, but, at the same time, produces gasolene in quantities, which itself has a distinct value, and may aid materially in paying the cost of the manufacture. This process, like that for gasolene, was worked out by Dr. Rittman at the laboratories of Columbia University, which had been placed at the disposal of the Government. It is open to manufacturers generally, and it is stated that two companies, one an independent oil concern, and the other a large gun-powder manufactory, will adopt both this and the gasolene process immediately. It is a significant fact that industrial needs so important as these should be met through Government research conducted and brought to fruition for the benefit of all the people.

*Minimum Wage and the Labor Unions*

The demand for minimum wage laws, which, two years ago, became insistent in many of the States, has been so modified that the bills introduced in this year's legislatures do not, as a rule, give the proposed commissions power to fix arbitrarily the rates of wages as is now done in the States of California, Oregon, and Washington. At a recent meeting held

under the auspices of the Minimum Wage Commission of the National Civic Federation in New York City, most of the speakers strongly opposed minimum wage laws, but Mrs. Charles F. Edson, of the California Industrial Welfare Commission, asserted that the effect of the mandatory legislation in the Pacific Coast States had been good, and cited the statistics of department stores to prove the truth of her statements. Other speakers challenged the economic soundness of the minimum wage and a representative of the American Federation of Labor declared that the union minimum was at least twice what was proposed in States which had minimum wage laws. The labor unions in California opposed the legislation, but the people sustained it by a referendum vote of 84,000 majority.

*Proposed  
New York  
Commission*

The bill under discussion in the New York legislature provides for a State Wage Commission to investigate the wages of women and minors in industries which are believed to be underpaying them, to define living wages for such employees, and to give publicity to its findings. Subsidiary wage boards are to be appointed which will be representative of employers, employees, and the general public. These boards will agree upon minimum wage rates which are recommended to be put into effect gradually in case the conditions of any particular industry should not permit their immediate adoption, and the findings of these boards are to be made public. There is no provision in the New York bill for enforcing the Commission's recommendation. The main purpose of the measure seems to be to determine what is a living wage for women and minors, and when once this is done, public opinion is relied upon to see that the proper wage is paid.

*The  
Seamen's  
Law*

Regarding the so-called Seamen's bill, which was passed in the closing hours of Congress and approved by President Wilson, there are conflicting views. In that provision which makes the new law applicable to all ships leaving the ports of the United States, whether flying our flag or another, the measure is distinctly radical, and has been thought by some to threaten international



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ROBERT M. SWEITZER  
Democrat



WILLIAM H. THOMPSON  
Republican

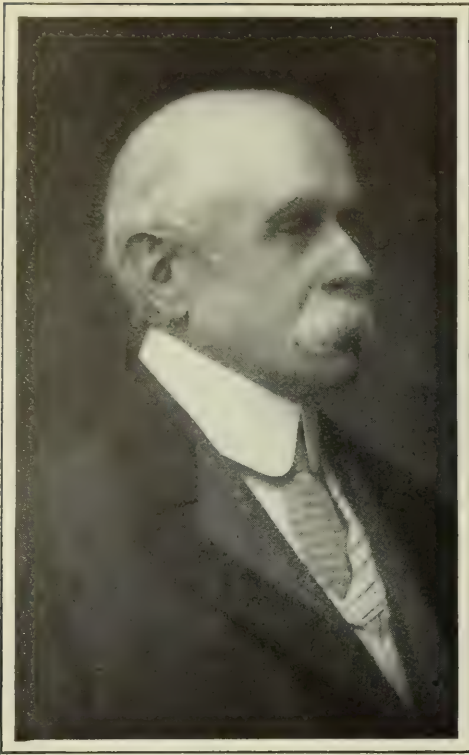
THE PRINCIPAL CANDIDATES FOR MAYOR IN CHICAGO

complications. At any rate, its regulations go far beyond those of foreign countries with which we have commercial treaties, and it is possible that in some points it will be found to controvert those treaties. This, however, may be said for the law: It gives the common sailor on our merchant ships for the first time in our history a fair chance. It does away with such inhumanities as involuntary servitude at sea, flogging, and arrest and imprisonment for desertion. It requires for the crews of merchant vessels comfortable and decent quarters, hospital accommodations, and reasonable standards as to food and pay. The law also makes provision for greatly increasing the safety of travel at sea in the matter of life-boats and life-rafts.

*Chicago's  
Mayoralty  
Campaign*

Traction affairs and social conditions are perennial issues in Chicago municipal elections,—although less conspicuous and vital now than at several periods during the last fifteen or twenty years. It is not a novel condition, either, which brings forward the names of Mr. Lorimer and Mr. Sullivan quite as frequently as the names of the candidates themselves. The various factions among the Republicans and Democrats adjusted their differences soon after the primaries, and the nominees have seemed to receive the united support of their respective party organizations. The fusion movement, which was much discussed early in the year, failed to materialize; and Congressman Thompson, after looking the situation over on his return





THE LATE CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS

from Washington, decided not to head a Progressive ticket. At the election on April 6, therefore, the voters will have merely to decide between the records and claims of the Democratic candidate, Mr. Robert M. Sweitzer, and the Republican, Mr. William H. Thompson.

*Charles  
Francis  
Adams*

The Hon. Charles Francis Adams, who died at his Massachusetts home on March 19, at the age of eighty years, was the great-grandson of the second President of the United States and the grandson of the sixth. Moreover, he was further associated with the current of American history by the fact that his father was our Minister to England during the critical Civil War period, and rendered services in that capacity which rank in importance with those of more than one of our Presidents. In the fourth generation of this remarkable Massachusetts family, Charles Francis, who has just died, was a worthy

heir to the intellectual distinction of his forebears. A graduate of Harvard, he served throughout the Civil War in the Union army, rising from first-lieutenant to colonel and brevet brigadier-general of volunteers. After the war he was active in railroad building and management, becoming president of the Union Pacific, and as a member of the Massachusetts Board of Railroad Commissioners for a decade he was a pioneer in the form of railroad regulation which the State commission represents. In his latter years Mr. Adams gave much time to historical writing and lecturing. The biography of his father, including an exhaustive review of Civil War diplomacy between the United States and Great Britain, was the most consequential of his writings, but his contributions to current discussions were frequent and always commanded attention. The American reading public will not soon forget his scoring of pension abuses and other governmental evils. As recently as last December we quoted in this REVIEW from Mr. Adams' letter to President Wilson on the subject of railroad rate-regulation. The literary power and dignity of a distinguished line of writers were well exemplified in this honored New Englander.

*New  
Prohibition  
States*

Last month we alluded in these pages to the consideration of the prohibition question by various State legislatures. During recent weeks the measures that were then under consideration have been finally acted upon. In Iowa, Arkansas, Idaho, and Utah the legislators have recognized the demands of their constituents, and have adopted statewide prohibition laws which become effective next year without further action. In Montana, South Dakota, and Vermont the legislatures have agreed to submit the question to the voters. Minnesota, which is almost entirely "wet" territory, has adopted a local-option measure after a fight lasting twenty-six years. The anti-saloon leaders believe that under this law at least thirty counties will soon vote "dry." The saloon is now forbidden in eighteen States; and it is worthy of note that in nine of those States the prohibitory laws have been adopted within the past six months.

# SOME PICTORIAL ASPECTS OF THE WAR



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

FRENCH SOLDIERS, EXCHANGED AND RELEASED FROM DETENTION CAMPS IN GERMANY, ARRIVING IN SWITZERLAND ON THEIR WAY HOME TO FRANCE



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

A DETACHMENT OF GERMAN WAR PRISONERS OF FRANCE, WHO HAVE BEEN EXCHANGED AND ARE BEING TAKEN THROUGH SWITZERLAND ON THEIR WAY BACK TO THE FATHERLAND





Photograph by American Press Association, New York

ENGLISH SOLDIERS DRAWING THEIR BOILED AND FILTERED DRINKING WATER—AN INSTANCE OF THE CARE BEING TAKEN OF THE HEALTH OF THE MEN AT THE FRONT



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE INTERIOR EQUIPMENT OF A GERMAN HOSPITAL CAR



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

A NEW VILLAGE AT THE WAR FRONT CONSTRUCTED BY FRENCH SOLDIERS. THE FIRST SHACK ON THE RIGHT IS THAT OF THE RED CROSS DOCTOR



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

INTERIOR OF A GERMAN KITCHEN CAR, SHOWING ITS MODEL EQUIPMENT





Photograph by American Press Association, New York

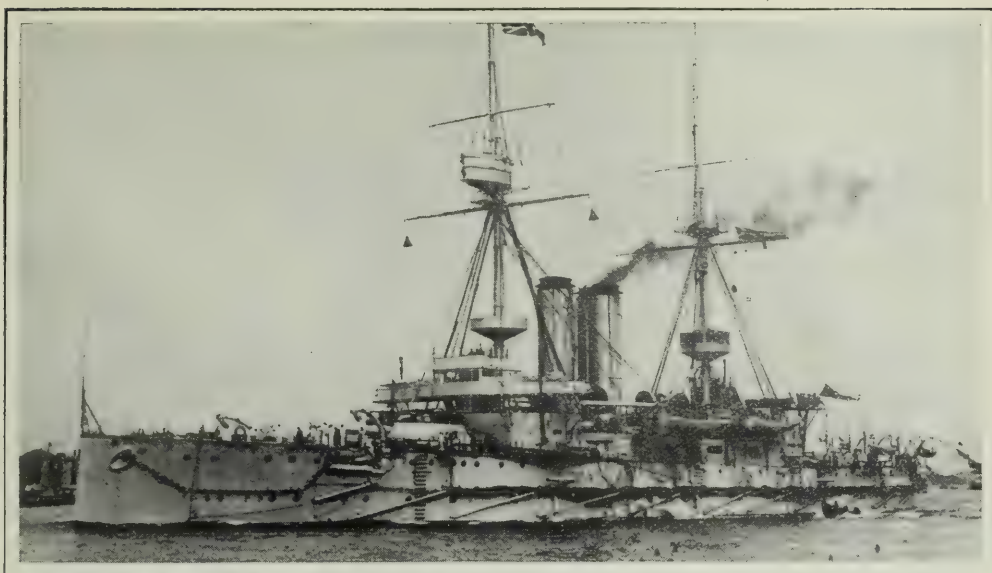
A VIEW OF BRUSA, THE ANCIENT CAPITAL OF TURKEY, WHICH MAY AGAIN BECOME THE SEAT OF THE OTTOMAN GOVERNMENT

*Brusa, in Asia Minor, lies about sixty miles south of Constantinople. The city had long flourished as a seat of royalty even before it became the early capital of Turkey. It has dwindled in population since its ancient glory as an abiding place of Kings and Sultans. Here are splendid mosques and tombs of great historical and architectural interest, as well as important silk and carpet industries. The modern section of Brusa has clean streets and good roads. In the town are an American mission and school and also a British orphanage. Brusa has always been regarded as the place of refuge to which the Turks could retreat in case Constantinople should be too sorely threatened.*



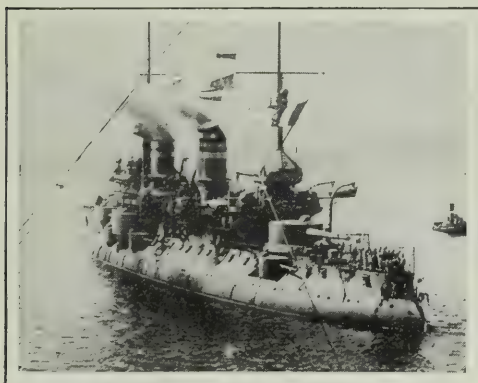
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TURKISH TROOPS ENCAMPED IN THE DESERT



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THE BRITISH BATTLESHIP "OCEAN" SUNK BY A MINE IN THE DARDANELLES



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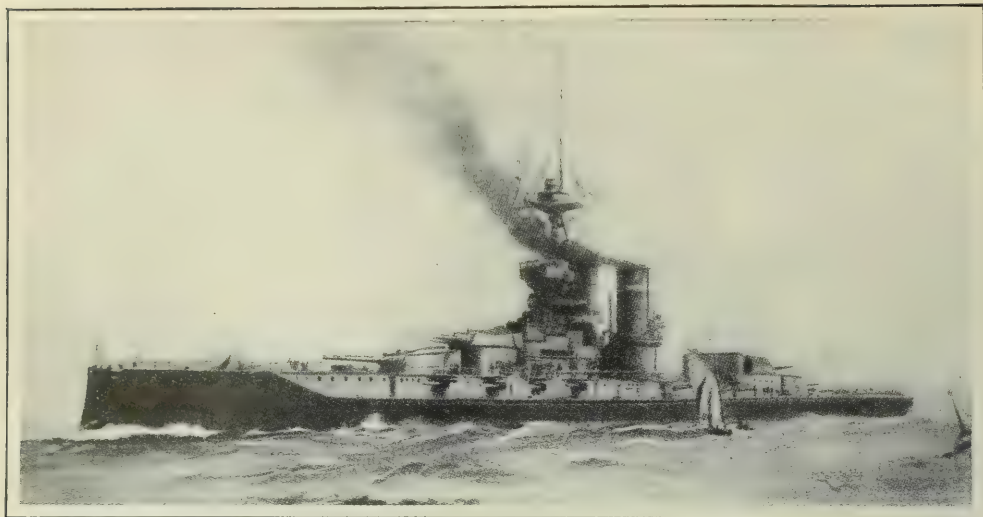
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TWO OTHER MINE VICTIMS—THE FRENCH "BOUVET" (LEFT), AND THE BRITISH "IRRESISTIBLE" (RIGHT)



AND STILL A LONG WAY FROM THE SUEZ CANAL



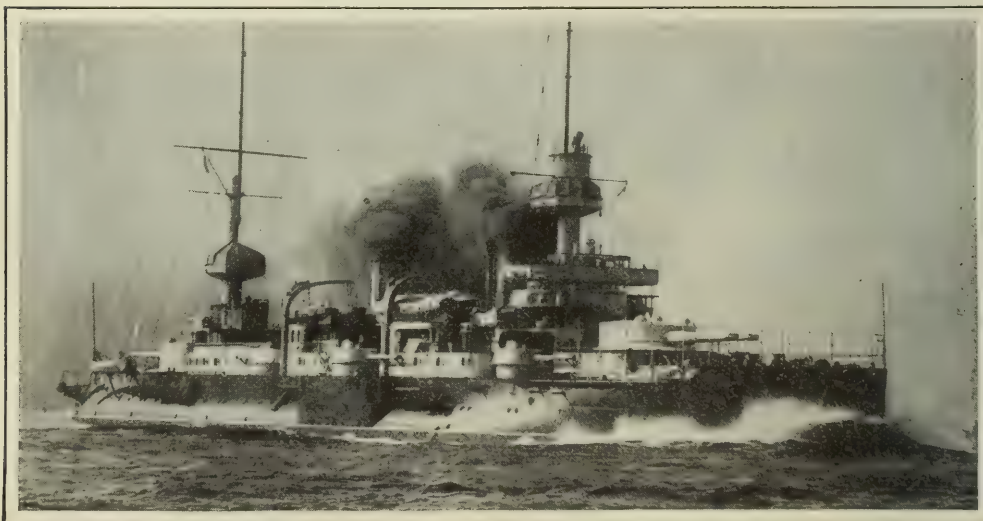


Photograph by American Press Association

THE NEW BRITISH SUPERDREADNOUGHT, "QUEEN ELIZABETH," IN ACTION IN THE DARDANELLES



THE OPERATION OF MINE-SWEEPING, NOW BEING CARRIED ON IN THE DARDANELLES TO CLEAR THE WAY TO CONSTANTINOPLE FOR THE ALLIED FLEETS



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THE "SUFFREN," FLAGSHIP OF THE FRENCH FLEET IN TURKISH WATERS



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

A RUMANIAN CAMP ON THE FRONTIER FACING AUSTRIA



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

HUNGARIAN GENDARMES GUARDING THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN BORDER TOWARD RUMANIA



# RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From February 18 to March 19, 1915)

## The Last Part of February

February 18.—The German decree relating to warfare by submarines and mines against merchant ships in the waters around Great Britain becomes effective.

Germany, replying to the American note regarding the maritime war zone, disclaims all responsibility for such accidents and their consequences as result to neutral vessels.

Two German Zeppelin airships are wrecked near the Danish coast while flying over the North Sea during a gale.

February 19.—Great Britain replies to the American protest (February 16) on the detention of the *Wilhelmina*,—an American ship carrying wheat to a German port,—affirming its intention to send the case to a prize court.

Great Britain replies to the American note (February 12) concerning the use of the United States flag by British merchant vessels; the use of neutral flags is upheld as a principle of international law, but assurance is given that the British Government has no intention of advising their general use.

The opening of the Italian Parliament is accompanied by scenes of disorder in the streets, by mobs demanding intervention on the side of the Allies and the recovery of Trente and Trieste from Austria.

A Rumanian report declares that the Russians have evacuated all of Bukowina.

February 19-20. A large fleet of British and French warships bombards the Turkish forts guarding the entrance to the Dardanelles, outranging the forts and causing considerable damage without themselves being hit.

February 20.—The American steamship *Evelyn*, nearing Bremen with a cargo of cotton from New York, is sunk by a mine in the North Sea near the mouth of the Ems.

The German pursuit from East Prussia has been halted by the Russians at the fortress of Ossowetz; the German offensive movement entirely cleared East Prussia of the enemy.

An Italian report declares that Austria has ordered landowners to sow immediately every available piece of ground with spring wheat.

February 23.—A second United States vessel,—the *Carib*, a cotton-carrier bound from Charleston to Bremen,—is sunk in the North Sea, presumably by a mine.

It is learned that half a Bengalese regiment mutinied at Singapore on February 15, killing 35 persons, among them 8 officers and 14 civilians.

February 24.—Przasnysz, a strategic point in Russian Poland, north of Warsaw, is stormed and captured by the Germans.

The end of the first week of Germany's submarine and mine warfare against British shipping finds a total of eight British ships destroyed, besides two Norwegian and one British; two other Norwegian and two American ships were sunk outside the German war zone.

Germany declares that the cargo of the *Wilhelmina* (detained by the British), as well as other food shipments from America, would not be subject to government regulations and would not be used for the army or the navy.

Austria, it is reported from Vienna, takes over all stocks of rye, barley, maize, and flour products, and will undertake the distribution of bread in various districts.

The French destroyer *Dague* is sunk by an Austrian mine off the port of Antivari, Montenegro.

February 25.—The fleet of British and French warships resumes its attempt to force the Dardanelles, and completely reduces the four forts at the entrance.

Sir Edward Grey, Secretary for Foreign Affairs, states in the House of Commons that the British Government is in sympathy with Russia's aspirations regarding an outlet to the sea via Constantinople and the Dardanelles.

February 27.—The cotton freighter *Dacia* (recently transferred from German ownership to American) is seized in the English Channel by a French cruiser; the legality of the transfer will be passed upon by a French prize court.

A Russian official statement announces that Przasnysz has been recaptured.

Admiral von Pohl, Chief of the Admiralty Staff, is selected to command the German fleet, succeeding Admiral von Ingenhol.

The German federal council adopts the preliminary budget estimates, including \$2,510,500,000 for war purposes and \$830,750,000 for ordinary expenditures.

A German statement describes an advance of four miles over a front thirteen miles long, against the French forces in the Vosges.

## The First Week of March

March 1.—A formal statement of the policy of Great Britain and France, in retaliation against Germany's submarine "blockade," is made by Premier Asquith in the British House of Commons; it is the Allies' intention "to prevent commodities of any kind from reaching or leaving Germany."

The British House of Commons unanimously appropriates \$1,435,000,000 for war purposes, bringing the total authorization up to \$3,235,000,000.

The French Government estimates that there are 1,880,000 Germans facing the French, British, and Belgians on the western front, and 2,080,000 Germans and Austrians opposed to the Russians in the east.

March 2.—Germany, in reply to informal inquiries from the United States (February 22), offers extensive modifications in its submarine warfare against shipping if Great Britain will recede from certain positions it has taken.

The Russian cruiser *Askold* joins the fleet of British and French warships bombarding the forts at the Dardanelles.



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A SCENE OF WAR AND PEACE IN FRANCE : THE ARMORED AUTOMOBILE PASSES THE BOY WORKING IN THE FIELDS

Five Austrian warships bombard Antivari, the Montenegrin seaport.

March 3.—British troops at the head of the Persian Gulf are attacked by Turks and hostile Persian tribesmen; the British report that they successfully repulsed superior numbers.

March 4.—The German submarine *U-8* is sunk by British destroyers in the English Channel, the crew of 29 being rescued.

The Russian army occupies Stanislaw, in Galicia, and reports the Austrian army as continuing to retreat.

The German Zeppelin airship *L-8* is destroyed (according to a Dutch report) by contact with trees in Belgium.

March 5.—The British Admiralty announces that an examination of the steamer *Thordis* confirms the statement of her captain and crew that she rammed and sank a German submarine on February 28.

Three of the largest British battleships begin an attack on the principal forts on the European side of the narrows in the Dardanelles; the British East Indian squadron opens an attack on the Turkish port of Smyrna.

March 6.—Premier Eleutherios Venizelos of Greece resigns; his program for entering the war on the side of the Allies was opposed by King Constantine.

The British superdreadnought *Queen Elizabeth* (recently commissioned) shells two of the Dardanelles forts by indirect fire across the Gallipoli peninsula, at a range of  $11\frac{1}{2}$  miles.

### *The Second Week of March*

March 8.—Details are published in Paris of the loans to be made by Great Britain, France, and Russia to Belgium, Servia, Greece, and Montenegro, amounting to \$270,000,000.

March 9.—The British army, supported by French heavy artillery, makes an important ad-

vance against the Germans, capturing the village of Neuve Chapelle in northern France.

Three British merchant ships are sunk by German submarines at different points off the English coast.

The British Admiralty publishes figures showing that from January 21 to March 3 German submarines torpedoed and sank 15 steamers, out of a total of 8734 vessels which arrived at or departed from British ports.

A new peace cabinet is formed in Greece, headed by Demetrios Ghounaris; the Chamber of Deputies is prorogued for a month (probably to be then dissolved), in order to prevent the overthrow of the ministry.

March 10.—The German converted cruiser *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* enters Hampton Roads for repairs, after a seven-months' commerce-destroying voyage from Tsing-tao, China; among the eleven merchant vessels destroyed was the *William P. Frye*, an American sailing ship bound from Seattle to Queenstown, England, sunk on February 27, on the ground that her cargo of wheat was contraband.

The German submarine *U-12* is rammed and sunk by the British destroyer *Ariel*.

March 11.—The British auxiliary cruiser *Bavano* is torpedoed by a German submarine near the North Channel.

March 13.—Reports are received of the sinking, within three days, of seven British and one French steamer, by German submarines or mines in waters around the British Isles.

### *The Third Week of March*

March 14.—The German cruiser *Dresden* (which escaped during the engagement off the Falkland Islands), is cornered and sunk by three British cruisers near Juan Fernandez Island, off the Chilean coast.

March 15.—The British Government issues an Order in Council defining and putting into effect



the policy of reprisal against Germany; declaration is made of the intention of the Allies to exercise the privilege of confiscating or requisitioning the cargo of any merchant vessel if the goods are of enemy destination or origin.

Great Britain refuses to agree to the American proposals (February 22) for a solution of the controversy with Germany over merchant vessels.

The Russians besieging the Austrian fortress of Przemyśl carry by assault heights within rifle range of the forts protecting the city.

March 17.—Chancellor Lloyd George announces that the British Government has decided to organize the industries of the country for the purpose of increasing the output of ammunition; the step virtually means Government direction.

March 18.—The State Department at Wash-

ington announces that arrangements have been concluded by which the United States will inspect alien prison camps in Great Britain, Germany, and Austria, and distribute supplies from outside to prisoners.

Medical relief for Serbia, visited by typhus fever and cholera epidemics, is decided upon by the American Red Cross and the Rockefeller Foundation.

March 19.—The French battleship *Bouvet* and the British battleships *Irresistible* and *Ocean* are blown up by floating mines during an assault upon the forts in the narrows of the Dardanelles; most of the crew of the *Bouvet* are lost.

A third Russian invasion of East Prussia is disclosed by the capture of Memel, a German seaport on the Baltic near the frontier.

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

*From February 18 to March 19, 1915*

### PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

February 18.—In both branches, the Administration's Ship Purchase bill is sent to conference committee; it is understood that the measure will not be reported back until February 27, and that in the meantime the Senate will consider the regular appropriation bills.

February 19.—The House adopts the Pension appropriation bill (\$164,000,000).

February 22.—The Senate adopts the Pension appropriation bill without debate and without a roll call.

February 23.—The Senate passes the Army appropriation bill (\$103,000,000). . . . The House adopts the Fortifications appropriation bill (\$6,060,000).

February 24.—The Senate adopts the Post Office appropriation bill (\$322,000,000).

February 26.—The Senate adopts the Naval appropriation bill, increasing the House provisions for submarines and aircraft; the Fortifications and Diplomatic appropriation bills are also passed.

February 27.—Both branches receive the Ship Purchase measure as adjusted by the conference committee. . . . The Senate adopts the conference report (previously accepted in the House) on the La Follette Seaman's bill, designed to improve the condition of seamen and to provide for the safety of passengers.

March 2.—Both branches agree to the conference report on the Naval appropriation bill, authorizing two new battleships, six destroyers, and eighteen submarines. . . . The Senate confirms the President's nominations for the Federal Trade Commission, except that of Mr. Rublee; 41 Democratic members petition their leader, Mr. Kern of Indiana, to appoint a committee to report on revision of the rules to the Democratic caucus at the next session. . . . In the House, the committee which investigated the Colorado coal strike makes its report, criticizing Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and the State militia, and recommending federal legislation to promote arbitration.

March 3.—Both branches adopt a resolution designed to strengthen the powers of the President in the enforcement of neutrality laws.

March 4.—The Senate confirms the President's nominations for the promotion of army and navy officers associated with the building of the Panama Canal; Colonel Goethals (chairman of the Commission) and Brig. Gen. Gorgas (in charge of sanitation) become Major Generals. . . . The Sixty-third Congress comes to an end, without final action on the Administration's Ship Purchase bill and the Post Office and Indian appropriation bills.

### AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

February 18.—The Iowa House agrees to the Senate measure repealing the Mulct Law and reestablishing prohibition on January 1, 1916.

February 20.—The Montana Senate accepts the House Statewide prohibition bill, submitting the question to a referendum vote instead of amending the constitution.

February 22.—President Wilson sends to the Senate the nominations for the new Federal Trade Commission; Joseph E. Davies, of Wisconsin, William J. Harris, of Georgia, William H. Parry, of Washington, George Rublee, of New Hampshire, and Edward N. Hurley, of Illinois.

February 23.—The Chicago mayoralty primaries result in the defeat of Mayor Carter H. Harrison by Robert M. Schweitzer, for the Democratic nomination; William H. Thompson carries the Republican contest. . . . Governor Boyle signs the "easy divorce" bill passed by the Nevada legislature, reducing to six months the required period of residence.

February 25.—The Idaho Senate passes the Statewide prohibition bill which had previously been adopted in the House.

February 27.—Governor Kendrick signs the widowed mothers' pension bill passed by the Wyoming legislature.

March 2.—Governor Alexander signs the Idaho Statewide prohibition bill, effective January 1, 1916. . . . The Utah House adopts a Statewide prohibition bill which had previously passed the Senate. . . . The President nominates Robert W. Woolley, of Virginia, to be Director of the Mint.

March 3.—The South Dakota House adopts the

Senate's resolution submitting a Statewide amendment to the voters in November, 1916. . . . The President nominates Samuel Lyle Rogers, of North Carolina, to be Director of the Census.

March 4.—Forty-one Western railroads begin argument for increased freight rates before Interstate Commerce Commissioner Daniels, at Chicago.

March 4-5.—The Indiana legislature adopts a primary measure, giving voters an opportunity to express preference for all State candidates, including President and United States Senator.

March 5.—The North Dakota legislature passes a bill abolishing the death penalty.

March 6.—Governor Clarke, of Iowa, signs the proposed woman-suffrage and constitutional-prohibition amendments, the latter requiring a second passage through the legislature.

March 8.—The United States Supreme Court overrules, as unjust and affording too little profit, the West Virginia 2-cent railroad passenger rate law, and the North Dakota statute fixing a rate for transporting coal; profits on the entire business of a railroad do not justify a compulsory low rate on a particular commodity.

March 10.—Rear-Admirals Fletcher, Howard, and Cowles are raised to the grade of Admiral, created at the recent session of Congress.

March 13.—The United States Circuit Court of Appeals reverses the judgment of the lower court which found twenty-eight officials of the National Cash Register Company guilty under the Anti-Trust law.

March 16.—Express companies representing 95 per cent. of the business of the country appeal to the Interstate Commerce Commission to reopen the rate question, maintaining that the rates prescribed have proved disastrous. . . . Attorney-General Gregory states his opinion, in reply to a formal complaint, that the Associated Press does not violate the provisions of the Anti-Trust act.

### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

February 22.—Davilmar Theodor, who assumed the Presidency of Haiti in November, after leading a revolution, is himself forced to abdicate and leave the country.

March 1.—Dr. Feliciano Viera is elected President of Uruguay.

March 5.—Gen. Vilbrun Guillaume Sam, leader of the recent revolution, is elected President of Haiti.

March 6.—A Republic of Northern Portugal is proclaimed by a congress of Democrats in the northern provinces, with Gen. Antonio Barreto (a former Minister of War) as president.

March 7.—Euletherios Venizelos resigns the Premiership of Greece, his policy of immediate participation in the war not being acceptable to the King.

March 9.—It is reported that General Obregon and his troops (supporting Carranza) have evacuated Mexico City, Zapata forces occupying it. . . . Demetrios Ghounaris forms a ministry in Greece acceptable to King Constantine; in order to prevent its overthrow the King prorogues the Chamber of Deputies for one month.

### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

February 25.—A Peking dispatch states that Japan has waived for the present the demands which China most strenuously resisted.

March 3.—A dispatch from Peking states that China has agreed to extend for ninety-nine years the Japanese lease of the ports of Dalny and Port Arthur, occupied by Japan since the Russo-Japanese War, under the Russian lease, due to expire in eight years.

March 11.—Zapata soldiers entering Mexico City break into the home of an American, John B. McManus (who had had trouble with them before), and kill him.

March 13.—China is officially informed of the dispatch of 30,000 additional Japanese soldiers to garrison points in Manchuria and Korea.

March 14.—Spain accepts explanations offered by General Carranza relating to the expulsion from Mexico of the Spanish Minister.

March 15.—The United States forces General Carranza to discontinue the blockade of the port of Progreso, Yucatan, controlled by an independent force of insurgents.

### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

February 20.—The Panama-Pacific International Exposition at San Francisco is opened with simple ceremonies; 215,000 persons enter the grounds.

February 21-22.—Conflicts between outlaw Piutes and United States marshals, near Bluff, Utah, result in the death of five Indians and two white men.

February 24.—The Piute Indians elude the marshals and escape into the desert.

February 28.—Announcement is made at Washington of the discovery by Dr. Walter F. Rittman, of the Bureau of Mines, of new processes for increasing the quantity of gasoline derived from petroleum, and for obtaining toluol and benzol (ingredients invaluable in the making of high explosives and dyestuffs) from crude petroleum instead of from coal tar. . . . Definite steps are taken by citizens for the formation of an American Legion, to establish military and naval reserves for national defense by voluntary enrollment of former soldiers and sailors and of others especially fitted for any branch of modern warfare.

March 2.—An attempt to explode powerful bombs in St. Patrick's Cathedral in New York is frustrated by detectives, a young Anarchist being caught while placing the bombs. . . . An explosion of gas in a mine at Leyland, W. Va., causes the death of more than 100 men.

March 5.—Fire breaks out on the French liner *La Touraine* when about 750 miles off the French coast, but is brought under control.

March 8.—The price of bread in New York City, raised to six cents a loaf by large bakers on February 10, is reduced to five cents after a public investigation.

March 7.—The Rockefeller Foundation announces that it will undertake to improve medical and hospital conditions in China; two medical schools are to be equipped and manned, and physicians and nurses are to be trained in the United States.

March 14.—Lincoln Beachy, the aviator, is killed when his monoplane collapses during a spectacular flight at the San Francisco Exposition.

March 16.—The battleship *Pennsylvania* is launched at Newport News, Va.; she will carry twelve 14-inch guns.



## OBITUARY

February 16.—Rev. Thomas Kelly Cheyne, the noted English authority on scriptural writings, 73.

February 18.—Frank James, the famous outlaw, 73.

February 19.—Frank Fuller, "War Governor" of Utah, 88. . . . Gopal Krishna Gokhale, a prominent Hindu statesman and educator, 49.

February 21.—Sir Charles Augustus Hartley, a distinguished English engineer, 90.

February 22.—Rear-Admiral Alfred Adamson, U. S. N., retired, 78. . . . Richard Hudson, for many years professor of English history at Michigan University, 69.

February 23.—Theodore M. Davis, the noted American Egyptologist, 78.

February 24.—Dr. John Ellsworth Goodrich, professor emeritus of Latin at Vermont University, 83.

February 25.—Dr. Charles Edwin Bessey, of Nebraska University, an authority on botany and horticulture, 69.

February 26.—Major-General Charles S. Heywood, U. S. A., retired, 75. . . . Frank Asbury Sherman, for many years professor of mathematics at Dartmouth, 73.

February 27.—Rudolph Berger, the Austrian operatic tenor, 40. . . . Bishop Riphah Hawaweeny, head of the Syrian-Greek Orthodox Church in North and South America, 54. . . . William Uhler Hensel, the Pennsylvania lawyer, educator, and politician, 63.

February 28.—Major William Arthur, U. S. A., retired, brother of President Arthur, 80. . . . Dr. John Patrick McGowan, prominent New York surgeon, 49.

March 1.—Frank T. Bullen, the English writer of sea tales, 58.

March 2.—Major-General Cyrus Bussey, distinguished in the Civil War and later Assistant Secretary of the Interior, 82. . . . James Geikie, professor emeritus of geology and mineralogy at Edinburgh University, 75. . . . Chester Firkins, the poet, 33. . . . Frederick Oakes Sylvester, painter of mid-Western landscapes, 45.

March 4.—Dr. Charles J. Eames, chemist, noted for researches in the use of carbolic acid, celluloid, and crematories, 84. . . . M. F. Berry,

widely known in the express business and originator of the money-order system.

March 5.—George ("Honey Boy") Evans, the popular minstrel, 45.

March 6.—Thomas R. Bard, former United States Senator from California, 74. . . . George Henry Cadogan (Earl Cadogan), extensive holder of London lands, 75.

March 7.—Brigadier-General George Smith Anderson, U. S. A., retired, 65. . . . William Henry Pinkney Phyfe, authority on orthology and pronunciation, 58. . . . Captain Dimitry Stepanovitch Vasilieff, for many years Russian naval attaché at Washington, 45.

March 8.—William H. Seaman, Judge of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 72.

March 9.—Brigadier-General Edward Bradford, veteran of the Civil War and prominent Connecticut lawyer 83. . . . Sir James Donaldson, a widely known British educator, 84.

March 10.—Charles A. Schieren, former Mayor of Brooklyn, 73.

March 12.—Count Sergius Julovich Witte, distinguished Russian statesman, 65. . . . Ferdinand Burg, brother of the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, 51. . . . Sir George Turner, the British surgeon and authority on leprosy, 64. . . . Mrs. John D. Rockefeller, 75.

March 13.—Colonel W. H. Crook, an executive officer at the White House under twelve presidents, 76.

March 14.—Samuel Bowles, the noted editor and publisher of the Springfield *Republican*, 63. . . . Bishop Joseph J. Fox, of the Roman Catholic diocese of Green Bay (Wis.), 60.

March 15.—Captain Henry King, for many years editor of the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, 72. . . . Walter Crane, the English painter, illustrator, and writer, 70. . . . Rev. Selden Jennings Coffin, for forty years a member of Lafayette College faculty, 76. . . . Rev. Brother Anthony, a noted Catholic educator, 74.

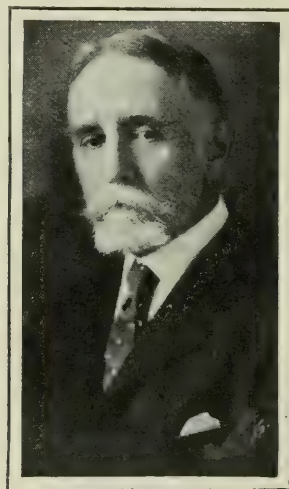
March 18.—Ex-Congressman James O'Donnell, of Mississippi, pioneer advocate of rural free delivery. . . . John Hinchliffe, three times Mayor of Paterson, N. J., 64.

March 19.—Gen. Charles Francis Adams, the distinguished historian and publicist, 80 (see page 406). . . . William Douglas Sloane, the New York merchant and philanthropist, 71.



COUNT WITTE

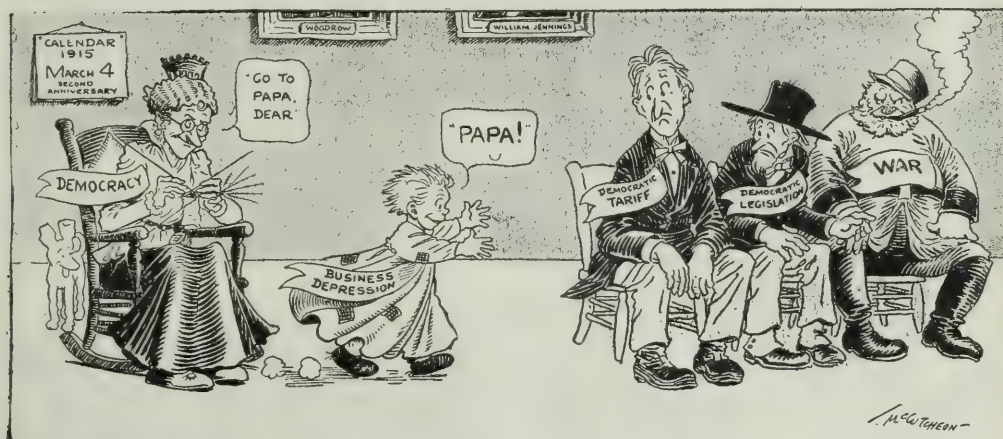
(The noted Russian statesman, who died last month, was the dominating figure at the Portsmouth peace conference which ended the war with Japan. Soon afterwards he was made Russia's first Premier. Insistent reports credit him with pressing peace views upon the Czar during recent weeks)



MR. SAMUEL BOWLES

(For the past thirty-six years Mr. Bowles had edited and published the Springfield [Mass.] *Republican*, maintaining the high quality of journalism established by his grandfather and his father. He died on March 14)

# CARICATURES ON CURRENT TOPICS

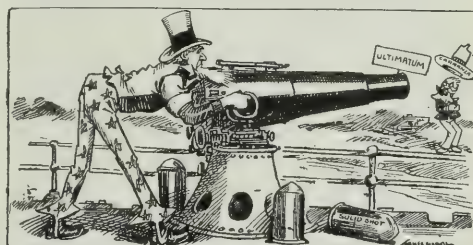
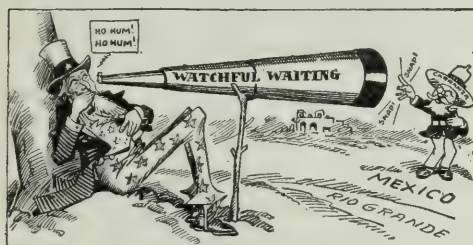


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WHICH IS THE "PAPA" OF THE BUSINESS DEPRESSION BABY?

From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

THE sixty-third Congress came to an end last month. In the period of its existence business conditions apparently suffered, though not, of course, as a direct result of Congressional law-making. Nevertheless, with the cessation of federal legislative activities for a season, we shall doubtless see some modification of industrial uncertainty.



AS TO MEXICO—A CHANGE OF POLICY IN PROSPECT

From the *Ledger* (Tacoma)



THE END OF THE SIXTY-THIRD CONGRESS

"Well, good-bye, Uncle Sam"

From the *Register and Leader* (Des Moines)

"She's done, by ginger!"

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



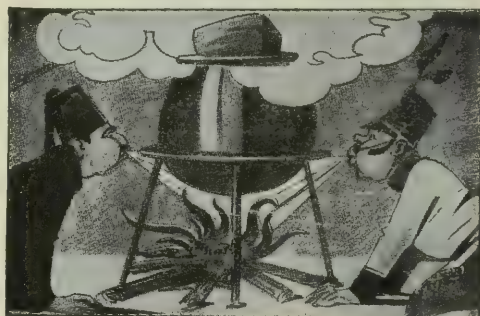


THE DESCENDING CRESCENT  
(Apropos of the present situation in the Dardanelles Straits)

From the *Sun* (New York)



OBSCURING CHINA'S PLACE IN THE SUN  
From the *Ledger* (Tacoma)



AUSTRIA AND TURKEY FANNING THE FIRE OF  
DISCORD IN ALBANIA  
From *Fischietto* (Turin)



INDIA'S LOYALTY TO THE BRITISH EMPIRE  
(In the cartoon, India—as expressed in the National Congress held at Madras recently—exhibits to Britannia and the other English Colonies her loyalty to the empire)

From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay)



THE RIDDLE OF THE SANDS  
TURKISH CAMEL: "Where to?"  
GERMAN OFFICER: "Egypt."  
CAMEL: "Guess again."

From *Punch* (London)





PRESIDENT WILSON FULFILLING HIS OBLIGATION TO HUNGRY EUROPE  
From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)



AT THE POINT OF THE BAYONET  
SEPOY ORDINANCE (to the Wheat Stockholder):  
"Now, then, move on, and clear out from here, or,—  
or,—I'll make you!"  
From *Hindi Punch* (Bombay)



THE GOVERNMENT AS THE PRETTY MILLER-GIRL,  
WHO WILL APPORTION THE FLOUR IN AUSTRIA  
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)

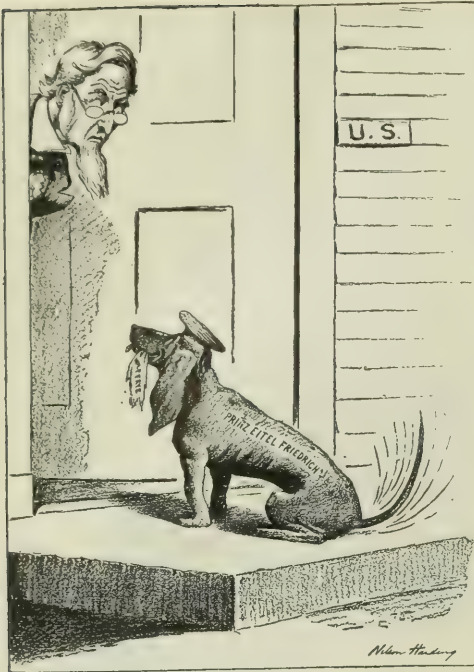


GERMANIA APPEALING TO UNCLE SAM FOR SHIP-  
MENTS OF GRAIN. From *Fischietto* (Turin)



AUSTRIANS HOARDING FLOUR LIKE GOLD!  
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)





## STRAY DOG!

(The *Prinz Eitel Friedrich*, as a German dachshund, comes gleefully to Uncle Sam's door with the proofs of the sinking of the *William P. Frye*)

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



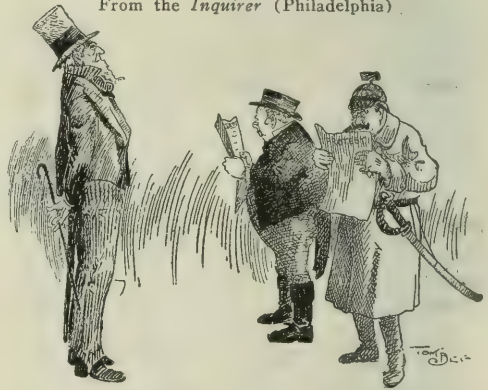
UNCLE SAM AS A PEACE ANGEL,—A GERMAN VIEW  
(With a peace prayer book in one hand and arms for sale in the other)

From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart)

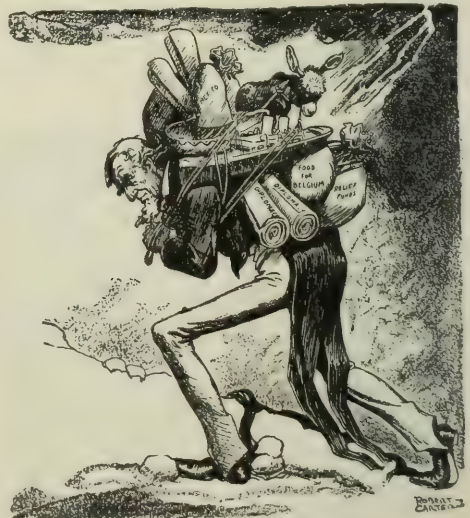


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YOUR UNCLE GETS IT COMING AND GOING  
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)



UNCLE SAM (handing protests to Great Britain and Germany apropos of shipping troubles): "Now they know where I stand." From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

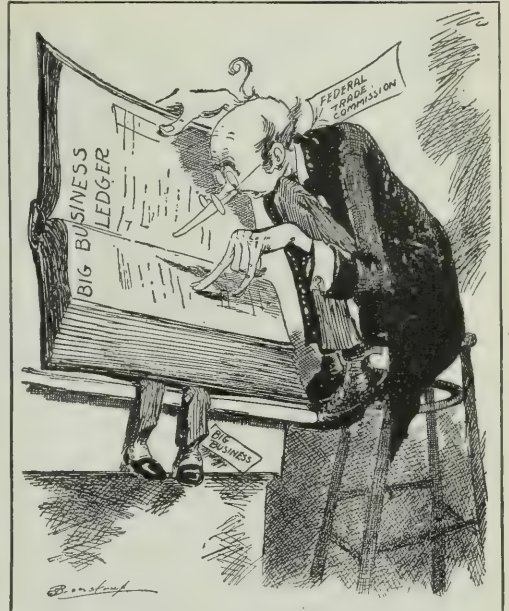


THE WHITE MAN'S BURDEN  
From the *Sun* (New York)

SOME VARIOUS VIEWS OF UNCLE SAM



HIS NEXT JOB—TO BUILD THE ALASKA RAILROAD  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



UNCLE SAM'S OFFICIAL PETER PRY  
From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco)

The opening of spring is to see the beginning of work on the new Government project, the building of the Alaska railroad, which it is hoped will be as brilliant and successful an achievement as the creation of the Panama Canal. Uncle Sam will soon become active in another industrial direction,

also, inasmuch as the new Federal Trade Commission is about to take up its appointed task. (See editorial comment, page 400.) In New York difficulty is being experienced in discovering the exact condition of the State finances. In other States prohibition is the paramount question.



THE LOST CHORD—TO THE TUNE OF EIGHTEEN MILLIONS

(Governor Whitman trying to harmonize the differences in the estimates of New York State revenues)  
From the *World* (New York)



THE IMPENDING DROUGHT

(Apropos of the advance of prohibition in Iowa and other sections of the country)  
From the *Register and Leader* (Des Moines, Iowa)



# ROBERT LANSING

## COUNSELOR FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

BY JAMES BROWN SCOTT

[The following appreciation of Mr. Lansing, with its description of the important work he is doing for our Government and of the high place he holds in the Administration, has especial value by reason of its authorship. Mr. Scott himself is an eminent authority in international law, was Solicitor of the State Department for five years under Secretary Root, is editor-in-chief of the *American Journal of International Law*, secretary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, and, like Mr. Lansing, has been connected with the adjustment of numerous differences between nations.—THE EDITOR.]

IN an address delivered before his fellow alumni of Amherst College on February 24, the Honorable Robert Lansing, Counselor for the Department of State since April 1, 1914, informed his hearers that the United States was at the present moment passing through, not merely troubled waters, but a very great crisis. To quote his exact words:

These are critical days for our country; how critical only those who are in intimate touch with affairs can fully realize. It is a time for serious thought, a time for anxiety. The greatest war of all history is being waged with a disregard for human life and a ferocity unparalleled in the annals of war. Nations seem to have returned to primitive barbarism. Rights of individuals and of nations are swept aside in this gigantic struggle which is devastating all Europe. Neutrals as well as belligerents are bearing the burden. The commercial and industrial life of the whole world is affected.

The questions arising out of the war and which confront the State Department must be answered immediately; otherwise the rights of neutrals may be prejudiced and the duties of neutrals may be neglected. War may result. To quote Mr. Lansing again:

It is impossible to proceed with that deliberation which would appear to be the part of wisdom. Things have to be *done*, not studied, these days. The motto "*Do it now*" is not a piece of advice in the Department of State. It is a *command*. A question which is a week old is ancient history.

In another portion of the same address Mr. Lansing referred to some of the questions which have arisen. Thus:

This great conflict has introduced the submarine, the aeroplane, the wireless telegraph, and new forms of explosives. It has made mechanical mo-

tive power an absolute necessity in military operations. The old strategy of surprise has given place to mobility. The petroleum products, essential to rapid motion in the air, on land, and beneath the sea, are as necessary to a modern army and navy as arms and ammunition. New devices for communication and transportation are used now for the first time in war, and new modes of attack are employed.

The result is that neutral nations have had to meet a series of problems which have never been solved. The liability of error, the danger of unintentional partiality, and the constant complaint of one or another of the belligerents make the path of neutrality rough and uncertain.

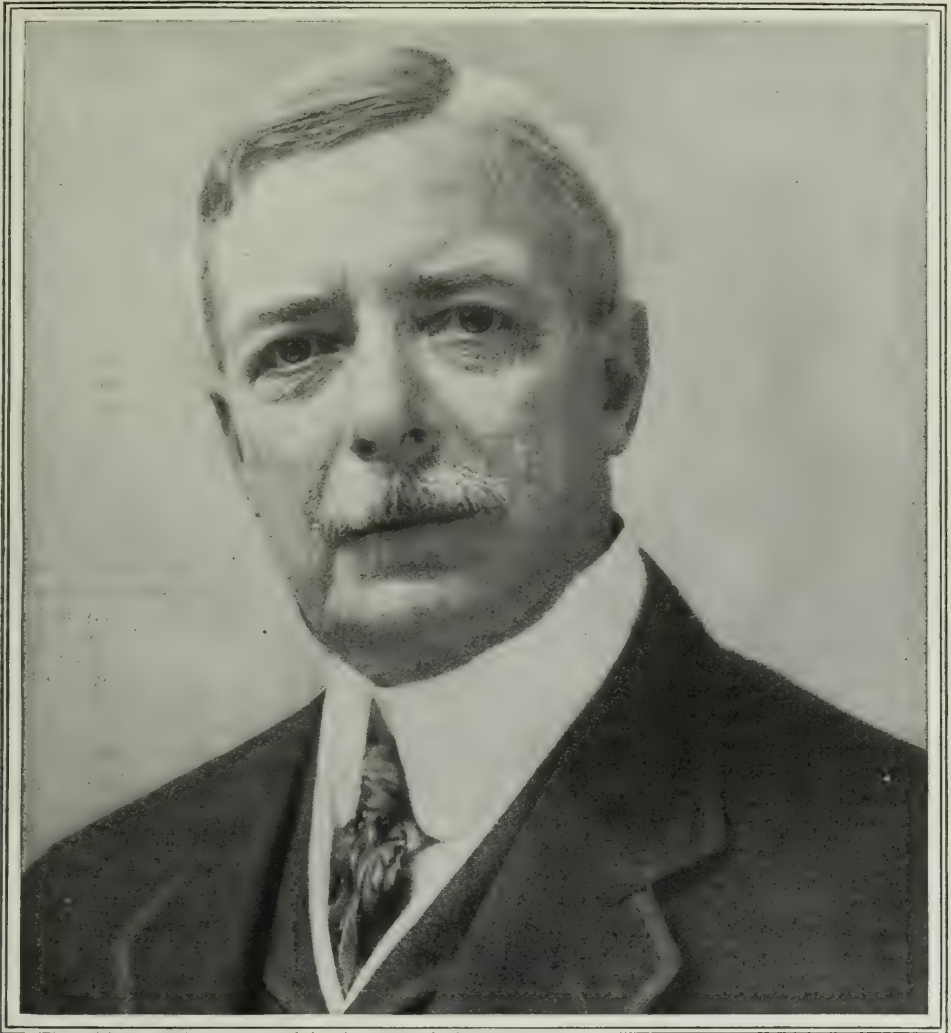
What is the relation of Mr. Lansing, as Counselor for the Department of State, to these problems, and, if it be close and intimate, if not absolutely controlling, how should they be solved in his opinion? In the same address Mr. Lansing states and answers both queries:

It is my duty to deal with the questions of international law and usage which are arising every day in our relations with other countries. These questions are of absorbing interest and many of them are extremely complex, because this war in its magnitude and methods is different from all the wars which have gone before. One can look in vain for precedents in many cases.

In a final quotation Mr. Lansing states his method of solving the problems arising out of the war and which it is his duty to decide:

We have to abandon that time-honored refuge of jurists and diplomats, precedents, and lay hold of the bed-rock of principle. Diplomacy to-day is wrestling with novel problems, to which it must apply natural justice and practical common sense.

If Mr. Lansing's relation to these questions is as stated,—and it is,—it is a personal



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HON. ROBERT LANSING

satisfaction to himself and a source of satisfaction, not merely to the Department of State and his official superiors, the President and the Secretary of State, but to the country at large that Mr. Lansing is fitted by training, by years of experience, and by natural temperament to handle the questions which he enumerates and to decide them easily and rapidly, not merely in accord with natural justice and practical common sense, but also in accord with precedents, where they exist and can properly be applied. If precedents seem to exist but are not applicable, Mr. Lansing possesses the gift of distinguishing between the good and the bad, the applicable and the inapplicable; where they do not exist, he creates them.

The rôle of common sense in the process is

very large, but Mr. Lansing is careful to require that the variety to be useful to a counselor must be practical. A captious critic might find fault with the expression *natural justice*, which Mr. Lansing regards as essential to the decision of novel problems. That justice is needed requires no argument. Natural justice, however, is difficult, if not impossible, to define. Mr. Lansing's friends, however, are prone to think that it is the variety of justice natural to him, which statement, however, his modesty would not permit him to make.

Having thus stated the nature of the questions which confront the Counselor for the Department of State in the performance of his daily duties, it will be apparent to the casual reader how his training and experience



have fitted Mr. Lansing for the performance of these duties. Mr. Lansing was born at Watertown in the State of New York on October 17, 1864, the son of an eminent lawyer, descendant of a family closely identified with the history of New York. Hitherto the most distinguished member of the family was the John Lansing, of Revolutionary fame, who represented New York in the Constitutional Convention of 1787 at Philadelphia, and who was later Chancellor of the State of New York. The present Mr. Lansing graduated from Amherst College in 1886 and, like his father and his distinguished ancestor, chose the legal profession. In 1886 he began the practise of law with his father at Watertown and until quite recently he continued in private practise except when retained by his own and foreign governments in important cases. The list of these is very large and imposing, and only the more important can be mentioned.

In 1892 he was appointed associate counsel for the United States in the Fur Seal Arbitration and attended the sessions of the international tribunal held in Paris in 1893. In 1894-5 he was counsel for the Mexican and Chinese Legations at Washington. In 1896 he was appointed by Mr. Richard Olney, the Secretary of State, counsel for the Government before the Bering Sea Claims Commission and as such attended the Commission as representative of this Government at its sessions held in Victoria, British Columbia, in 1896-7, and at Montreal and Halifax in the latter year.

He was counsel for private parties before the Canadian Joint High Commission in 1898-9 and counselor for the Mexican and Chinese Legations at Washington in 1900-1. He was solicitor and counsel for the Government before the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal in 1903, and attended the sessions of the tribunal at London in his official capacity. He was counsel for private parties in the Venezuelan asphalt disputes in 1905; counsel for the United States in the Atlantic Fisheries Arbitration at The Hague in 1908, and as such counsel attended the sessions of The Hague Tribunal which decided this long-standing and important dispute in 1910.

He was technical delegate of the Government in the Fur Seal Conference at Washington in 1911, and special counsel for the Department of State on various pending diplomatic questions and for the negotiation with Great Britain of the claims to be arbitrated under the special agreement of 1910; in 1911 counsel for the United States in the

American and British Claims Arbitration, and from 1913 to the date of his appointment as Counselor, he was agent of the United States before this Commission.

The questions with which Mr. Lansing was called upon to deal in arbitration cases were many and varied. They required for their settlement the disciplined mind of the lawyer trained in the common law. They also required a thorough grounding in international law. This is evident without argument or further statement, when it is borne in mind that among these cases Mr. Lansing was engaged in the Fur Seal Arbitration in 1892, the Alaskan Boundary case decided in 1903, and the Atlantic Fisheries Arbitration at The Hague, decided in 1910.

These three cases are the most important international disputes to which the United States has been a party since the famous *Alabama* case, decided in 1872. As a matter of fact, Mr. Lansing has represented the United States in more international arbitrations than any living American, and only a year ago a distinguished French authority, M. Henri Fromageot, stated, on learning of Mr. Lansing's appointment as Counselor for the Department of State, that he had had a longer and broader experience in international arbitration and had appeared more frequently before international tribunals than any living lawyer.

Mr. Lansing has not, however, contented himself with the principles of international law involved in the various cases in which he has been retained as counsel. His interest in the theory of international law is as keen and searching as in its practise, and his knowledge of the one is as profound as his knowledge of the other. He recognized the services which foreign journals of international law render to the law of nations, and he appreciated as keenly as any one,—more keenly than most,—the lack of a journal of international law published in the English language. He was, therefore, one of the founders of the American Society of International Law in 1906, and has been since its foundation a member of its executive committee. The *American Journal of International Law* was established a year later as the organ of the society. From its beginning Mr. Lansing has been an editor, and he has from time to time, as his professional engagements permitted, contributed to it articles, editorial comments, and book reviews.

But Mr. Lansing's interest has not been confined to the ordinary problems of municipal law, which confront the lawyer, nor

to the questions of international law, which arise between nations. He has taken a deep and enlightened interest in the constitutional law of the United States and is the author of a text-book on civil government entitled "Government, Its Origin, Growth, and Form in the United States."

It is true, as Mr. Lansing stated in his recent address before the Amherst Alumni, that he is obliged "to deal with the questions of international law and usage, which are arising every day in our relations with other countries." This does not mean, however, that Mr. Lansing's decision is final. The Secretary of State assumes the responsibility for the actions of the Department of State, and in conjunction with the President determines the policy of the Government in international matters. It is, however, of the greatest importance to the Secretary of State that the Counselor, who is the second official of the Department and who in the absence of Mr. Bryan is Acting Secretary, should be, not only well informed on the questions that arise, but broad-minded and sober of judgment in matters of policy.

The experience which Mr. Lansing has had is a guarantee of broad-mindedness, and it is safe to assume that he would not have filled with distinction the many posts and positions he has held, if his judgment were not sound and to be relied upon. But more exacting qualities are required in a Counselor. He should be a diplomat as well as an expert in international law. Mr. Lansing has associated with diplomats both at home and abroad, and he has the advantage of looking the part as well. He is a man of attractive personality, engaging manners, easy of speech, and careful, though not fastidious, in the choice of language.

His command of idiomatic, forcible, and withal literary English enhances the services which he renders to the Department and to the country, for it is well known that, under the direction of the President and of the Secretary of State, Mr. Lansing is entrusted with the drafting of the important documents which have been prepared since the outbreak of the war and which are likely to become state papers. It was stated in the press that the note to Great Britain, dated February 10, about the misuse of the American flag by British merchant vessels, and the note to Germany protesting earnestly but courteously against the menace to neutral commerce to be expected from the war zone proclaimed by Germany in British waters, were drafted by Mr. Lansing, and

they have had the singular good fortune of being approved by the American press and of being courteously received by the foreign countries to which they were addressed.

There is, however, a matter of the greatest moment, which may easily be overlooked, and yet which counts for much in the success of a government official. It is necessary that Mr. Lansing's superiors have not only confidence in his judgment and his devotion to the public service, but that his character be such as to create respect and to invite intercourse. From his long experience in public affairs Mr. Lansing recognized the importance of this qualification and was careful to assure himself, before accepting the position of Counselor, that his appointment was not only personally agreeable to, but was desired by Mr. Bryan.

The daily association is said to be agreeable to both, and Mr. Bryan's regard for Mr. Lansing is said to have ripened into close and intimate friendship. It is also common knowledge in Washington that the President has a very high regard for Mr. Lansing's attainments, and he is, with his immediate chief, a very frequent visitor at the White House. In Mr. Bryan's absence, Mr. Lansing attends Cabinet meetings.

The rôle of women in diplomacy is proverbial, and Mr. Lansing is very happy in the lady who honors him by bearing his name. Mrs. Lansing is a daughter of the Hon. John W. Foster, formerly Secretary of State in President Harrison's administration. She and her distinguished husband have celebrated their silver wedding since Mr. Lansing's appointment. Mrs. Lansing has breathed since childhood the atmosphere of diplomacy.

Any account of Mr. Lansing, however brief, would be inadequate and unsatisfactory to his friends if it did not mention certain abilities and certain characteristics known to and best appreciated by them. To his friends at Henderson Harbor, where he spends his summers, Mr. Lansing is known as a devoted and a successful fisherman. To his friends in Watertown and, in a less degree, to his friends in Washington, he is known as one interested in golf. To a smaller circle he is known as one possessing a rare and exquisite gift of verse, although he has hitherto refused to share this with the public. And to this same small circle he is known to be not merely a draftsman of great ability, but equally skillful with the brush. Above and beyond all, Mr. Lansing is a high-minded Christian gentleman.



# WARDEN OF THE NATION'S MOUNTAIN SCENERY

BY ENOS A. MILLS



HON. STEPHEN T. MATHER  
(Assistant to the Secretary of the Interior, in charge  
of National Parks)

THE appointment of Mr. Stephen T. Mather as assistant to the Secretary of the Interior to take administrative charge of all National Parks is epoch-marking. Mr. Mather is a mountain-climber and is an enthusiast over our National Parks. He will bring to these neglected parks that which they have not yet had,—a strong, sympathetic, and constructive administration. The position is a new one and has nothing to do with the workings of politics.

To Mr. Mather is thus entrusted dominion over a splendid scenic empire of about five million acres. This empire has enormous potential value. Of this scenic area, only a small part is ready for the traveler while countless thousands of travelers are waiting to see the whole. As Mr. Mather proposes, with the aid of Congress, to “get American

scenery ready to be seen” he will by so doing build up a travel industry in the United States that will be of enormous economic value.

Mr. Mather is a wealthy borax manufacturer of Chicago, in which city he has resided for twenty years. He is a member of the Association of Commerce and for years has been a leader in a number of constructive community interests, such as the House of Social Service and the City Club. He was born in San Francisco forty-seven years ago and is a graduate of the University of California. On leaving college he was for a time a reporter on the New York *Sun*. Ever in love with the outdoors, he was an intimate friend of the late John Muir and is an aggressive, constructive member of the Sierra Mountain Club.



A PORTION OF THE NEW ROCKY MOUNTAIN PARK IN COLORADO

## THE NATIONAL PARKS ON A BUSINESS BASIS

[Mr. Mather, the new director of our great series of National Parks, whose portrait is seen on the preceding page, has, at our request, sent the following informal but very instructive letter regarding these national scenic preserves, and their management for the public welfare. It is understood that this is Mr. Mather's first communication to the public on the subject of the parks. —THE EDITOR.]

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR: OFFICE OF  
THE ASSISTANT TO THE SECRETARY.

Washington, March 6, 1915.

DEAR DR. SHAW:

**I**N asking me to take administrative charge of the national parks, Secretary Lane has handed me a deep responsibility, particularly at this time when two expositions on the Pacific Coast are tempting many easterners to see the rest of their own country for the first time.

Secretary Lane has asked me for a business administration. This I understand to mean an administration which shall develop to the highest possible degree of efficiency the resources of the national parks both for the pleasure and the profit of their owners, the people; the profit to be continually reinvested in the parks themselves. It is business to make these great public properties help themselves by adding to their yearly income

provided by the Government; and it is business to make their common use by the people as cheap and as easy as possible. A hundred thousand people used the national parks last year. A million Americans should play in them every summer.

It will be my duty and pleasure to do all that lies in my power to establish a thorough business administration in these great national playgrounds. The concessioner in the parks, whether he be conducting a hotel, running stages or selling souvenirs, has always been closely supervised by the Department of the Interior. The rates that he may charge have been fixed at the beginning of each season, and always with an eye to giving the tourist a proper return for his money. There is no doubling prices in mid-season in the national parks.

The Government annually spends approximately \$400,000 on the upkeep of the national parks. This money is spent in the



building of roads and trails, in the construction and maintenance of telephone lines, and in the administration of the parks through civilian supervisors and rangers in all except Yellowstone, where an army officer with his cavalry troop is still in charge. Within another year, however, it is expected that a civilian force of rangers will relieve the army even here, when General Superintendent Mark Daniels will have worked out a complete and effective ranger service for all the parks.

The one broad plan which I hope to work out for the park is to make the Government a partner with the concessioner. Under present conditions, the concessioner makes all the money that is made. Not that he makes too much. I would have him make more. Nevertheless, it seems only logical that, with the Government owning these playgrounds, and spending funds liberally for their upkeep, the concessioner, after a proper interest on his investment, should share his net profits with the Government. At the same time, all charges to the public should be reasonable. They should be lowered rather than increased. They must be lowered as often and as much as is possible and just. The Government must do its part to make the national parks as cheap and as attractive as possible to the people, in order that the people, by coming yearly in great numbers, may make business profitable for the concessioners.

The proposition appears complicated. To some it may seem impossible. Yet it is only, after all, an every-day business problem. Its solution is increased business. Bring enough people to the parks and charges will decrease, while the concessioners, after sharing profits with the Government, will be far more prosperous than ever.

The outlook for increased patronage this year is good. We have been thrown back on ourselves by the present war conditions, and few there are who will have the temerity to visit Europe for pleasure during the coming summer. While Florida has been overwhelmed with the tide of travel this winter, and while the West Indies and the Bermudas have lured others, these resorts will not meet the present situation.

It is to the national parks that the summer travel should logically turn. Through John Muir's eyes, we have had a glimpse of their beauties, while lecturers and mountaineers like Enos Mills and Herbert W. Gleason have recounted their charms on the platform. At the same time, the ever-increasing number of outdoor and mountain clubs, from the

Appalachian Club on the east to the Sierra Club on the west, have sung the praises of the parks. But they have only partially turned the tide of travel.

Now, necessarily, there must be a great flood of travel in view of European conditions. What an opportunity this will be to break down our provincialism! I can say frankly that provincialism does exist, and I speak as one who has lived at each end of the continent and in the central West as well, and as one who has many warm friends in all three sections.

Our national parks are practically lying fallow, and only await proper development to bring them into their own. Yellowstone and Glacier National Parks have been somewhat exploited. Of course, many thousands have seen the Yosemite Valley; but, then, Yosemite Valley is only a very small fraction of the great Yosemite National Park, the rest of which will be more accessible to the public, and to the motorist in particular, when plans which Secretary Lane is advocating are carried out. Mount Rainier National Park, in Washington, with its wonderful glaciers, is but little known. Crater Lake, in Oregon, a veritable turquoise gem, had last year only two thousand visitors outside of Oregonians. Many Californians, even, hardly know of the existence of Sequoia Park, in the southern Sierras, which, according to Chief Geographer R. B. Marshall, of the United States Geological Survey, contains, with the great Kings and Kern River canyons, more beauties than all the other parks combined.

Last, but far from least, the Rocky Mountain National Park, on the Continental Divide, just fifty miles northwest of Denver, came into being in January, and bids fair to become one of the most popular summer resorts. Perhaps by the summer of 1916, when the beauty spots of this new park are made accessible by road and trail, even the dream of many Colorado people may be realized, that Colorado contain the summer capital of the nation. Surely the President and his Cabinet could do nothing more inspiring to themselves and the nation than to summer in this glorious mountain country, where they would truly be in touch with the Great West and yet be little more than two days from the national capital.

Much has been done by one or two railroads in advertising certain of the parks, but very much more extensive work than is being attempted at present should be done, and authoritative and attractive literature, direct from the Government, would carry much



MCDONALD LAKE, IN GLACIER NATIONAL PARK

weight in making the parks better known. too meager, taking into consideration their scenic wonders, but every effort will be made this summer to make these facilities commensurate with the heavy demand. Secretary Lane, who has very close to his heart the needs of the national parks, has particularly emphasized the importance of the ordinary creature comforts which go so far towards making a trip through one of the parks a delight. Scenery is a hollow enjoyment if the tourist starts out after an indigestible breakfast and a fitful sleep on an impossible bed. The leading hotels in the larger parks are in better shape than ever to cope with the coming demand on their facilities, and, while the doubling and perhaps trebling of their visitors will put a heavy strain on many of these hotels, the vigilance of the superintendents will go far towards smoothing the way for the tourist who is seeing his America for the first time.

I am writing this en route to the Conference of National Park Superintendents and Supervisors, which brings together on March 11, at Berkeley, California, the executives of all the parks to study together the varied and unusual problems which will arise when the flood of travel comes to them during the summer. They will get inspiration from each other's experiences, and will go back better prepared than ever to attack the problems which the present bookings of the railroads have made a certainty.

In many of the parks, the facilities are far

Very sincerely yours,  
STEPHEN TYNG MATHER,  
Assistant to the Secretary.





# NEW ENGLAND'S NEW POET

BY SYLVESTER BAXTER

A POET star of exceptional magnitude has risen for New England. Yet it was in old England that it emerged from a misty horizon, there to be recognized for what it was. The book which has brought to its author this measure of fame bears the title, as felicitous as significant, "North of Boston."

The poet is Robert Frost, born in San Francisco of a New England father and a Scotch mother, March 26, 1875. The elder Frost was then a newspaper editor in the Pacific metropolis and was prominent in local politics. He went thither from Lawrence in Massachusetts; he died when the boy was eleven years old and the family returned to their old home.

## A POET-PSYCHOLOGIST

His secondary schooling over, Robert Frost went to Dartmouth College for a while. Not finding what he felt he wanted, he turned to Harvard, there to be no better satisfied. This breaking away from educational opportunity made the impression among family connections of ne'er-do-well inclinations, correspondingly impairing material prospects that otherwise would have been bright for him. But his was one of the natures that must grow in their own way if they are not to break. His studies away from academic bounds appear to have given him as much as he had gathered within. Altogether, he managed to assimilate what he needed. His bent was towards psychology, and its fruit is discernible in his poetry.

Marriage, farming in northern New Hampshire, and then school-teaching; in these may be summarized the activities which in the main marked his life up to the great departure which proved the crucial point in his career and definitely determined his future. He had qualified in his special study to a degree that led to his appointment to the teaching staff at Derry Academy, in the charming old New Hampshire town of that name. And there he taught psychology with such acceptance that doubtless professorial honors might eventually have become his had he been so inclined.

His urge to poetic expression in verse had

been steadily gaining upon him ever since adolescence had turned his thoughts to life's deeper meanings. Fugitive poems occasionally appeared in the magazines, now and then to be treasured in the scrapbooks where so many poets, young and true, find abiding places in human hearts. Doubtless not a few will recall from shadowy nooks of memory the name of Robert Frost as one remotely familiar. But editors' ears are too often unattuned to new notes, preferring the re-singing of old songs. One of Frost's youthful lyrics, called "Reluctance," however, so impressed a certain eminent publisher of choice books with its lofty appeal that only just now, in preparing the index for a monumental series which for about a quarter of a century he has been issuing, he chose for its motto two significant stanzas from it. And it now gratifies him to recall that in correspondence with the youth,—whom he counselled to seek wider fields than his own limited range could offer,—he early recognized the rare quality of his genius. Again at Derry there was a friendly minister who predicted to one of the academy trustees, a newspaper editor of high station in New England, a great future for the young poet. The editor, confessing to little taste for the poetic, was highly gratified to learn, only the other day, that it was "that boy" who as a poet was now coming to his own.

## A SOJOURNER IN OLD ENGLAND

It may have been the friendly publisher's counsel, subliminally lingering, which, about three years ago, impelled Robert Frost to resign his comfortable teaching-berth at Derry, "pull up stakes,"—and go somewhere. But it was only two weeks before sailing that he and his wife decided upon England.

It seems now as if he must have been irresistibly impelled thither, obedient to Destiny's silent call. For some months Frost and his family,—which included four children,—lived quietly in a village not far from London. Then came his first book, a small collection of poems called "A Boy's Will," issued by Henley's publisher. For Robert Frost a boy's will had truly been the wind's will: blowing where it listeth. These poems

made an intimate record of the gradual unfolding of a personality, — perhaps too intimate, the author is inclined to hold. The book brought quick recognition as the work of a rare nature, and Frost was promptly drawn out from his rural retirement to be heartily welcomed in those choice circles of London's best intellectual life where caste distinctions count for nothing and the sole test is merit. Nowhere is recognition more genuine; in few places does it count so fully as a measure of worth.

#### LONDON'S RESPONSE TO A YANKEE BARD

Early last year "North of Boston" was brought out by the same publisher. Here the author came fully to his own. The book brought instant acclaim, and without reserve Frost was honored as a poet of high distinction. Perhaps if Walt Whitman himself had chosen England for his advent and had there dawned unheralded upon the world the effect would hardly have been more electrical.

Judgment as to the poet's quality was singularly unanimous. The reviews and the great weeklies gave the book exceptional space; the *London Nation*, for instance, devoted three columns to it. Frost was eagerly sought on every side; foremost poets welcomed him as their peer and took him to their hearts.

Frost liked England immensely and has won a host of dear friends there. Beaconsfield, the village where he lived, was also the home of the two young poets, Lascelles Abercrombie and Wilfred Gibson, and he was with them almost daily. But he was of New England in every fiber, and through the dull English winters, bone-chilling, the ground greasy with mud, he felt the most intense longing for the home country, its sparkling and tonic air, the sturdy New Hampshire landscape. He felt desperately homesick, and out of this mood "North of Boston" was conceived and wrought. One



ROBERT FROST

(Author of "A Boy's Will" and "North of Boston")

almost marvels that such a book, so vividly true to New England scenes and character, could have been created across the water. As with a Monet canvas, one feels that the artist must have produced it in the presence of his subjects. But it was this intense home-longing which visualized his themes. A few of these poems had been written in New England, but for much the greater part the work was done in old England.

Meanwhile the home-public had been singularly slow in responding to the British acclaim of the new poet. There were two causes for this: first, there had been no simultaneous American editions of either work. Indeed "A Boy's Will" is still practically unknown on this side. Second, the war broke out soon after, and little attention was given to anything else beyond the Atlantic. A few echoes from England were now and then heard. One of the poems, "The Code," had first appeared in the *Chicago* magazine,



*Poetry*. And last summer the Boston *Transcript's* accomplished and appreciative "Listener" had found in the London *Nation's* review material for a charming article. A few copies of "North of Boston" found their way across the ocean and into public libraries and private collections. This public was very limited in number, but its interest was deep, and the inquiry, "Who is Robert Frost?" grew insistent,—waxing in volume with the recent appearance of an American edition, promptly exhausted. This article will doubtless furnish the first answer to the question.

#### THE RETURN TO AMERICA

With the war, and the national upheaval, further stay in England became painful, notwithstanding the many good friends there. So one day late in February Robert Frost and his family were happy to touch American soil again. It seemed a good omen to find at a news-stand, the first thing after landing in New York, a copy of a weekly paper with his "Death of the Hired Man" conspicuously reproduced. The American edition of "North of Boston" had appeared a few days before.<sup>1</sup>

The poet is now in Bethlehem, New Hampshire, about to return to farming on his beloved soil. Early in March, stopping over in Lawrence, the home of his youth, he ran in to Boston intending to spend only a few hours in town. But so many people,—leading people in New England letters,—wanted to see him at dinner, luncheon, and otherwise that, although wholly unprepared for such attentions, having with him only the clothes he wore, he found it impossible to get away inside of four days. Frost's recognition in Boston is gratifyingly cordial and bears out the London estimate of his work. Intellectual Boston naturally feels a high satisfaction that, with all the wide development of poetic talent in other sections of the country, New England is still holding her own. Such men as Edwin Arlington Robinson and Robert Frost will maintain the lofty traditions of her Golden Age when Emerson, Longfellow, Lowell, Thoreau, Holmes, Whittier, and the others were active. One eminent woman author, herself ranking with the best interpreters of New England character, says: "Robert Frost's work is the greatest that has ever come out of New England,—and Mary Wilkins is next." An-

other author says: "In Frost we have another Masfield,—not a man like Masfield, but one of equally compelling power in his interpretations of life and nature."

#### THE POET'S PERSONALITY

Frost has a winsome personality, unassuming but not shy; a figure of average height, well built; a finely modeled head, mobile features and sensitive, dark brown hair of youthful abundance, the expressive blue eyes, tinged with a lightness as of summer mist at dawn, suggesting a dash of Celtic blood.

It is interesting to trace the derivations of a new poet. There is a suggestion of Wordsworth in Frost's method; a shade of Whitman in his native flavor and closeness to the home soil, though not the least resemblance in construction; something of Maeterlinck in his sense of lurking mystery, creeping and pervasive; a Hawthorne-like faculty of endowing our familiar New England world, even in its keen every-day reality, with that glamor of romance which Colonel Higginson so felicitously called "penumbra," tracing it back to Arthur Austin; and almost a blood relationship with Edwin Arlington Robinson,—both in the vagueness (so unlike obscurity) which in its blendings with realistic textures confers values and qualities of tone that often lead to exquisite gradations in sensitive shadings; and again in a humor that at times becomes grimly sardonic,—though with Frost as often touched with most delicate charm. To all this Frost has brought an individual quality of compelling force and a sweeping range of dramatic expression. The work is so essentially dramatic, underlaid and interwoven with keen psychological perceptions, as to lead some who most heartily like it to deny that "North of Boston" is poetry at all. But that is merely a matter of definition,—as when some powerful drama work of unconventional construction is declared to be "not a play." It may have been the last lines of Frost's exquisite picture of "The Woodpile":

"far from a useful fireplace  
To warm the frozen swamp as best it could  
With the slow smokeless burning of decay,"

which inspired some genuine poet to say of "North of Boston" in the London *Times* that "poetry burns up out of it as when a faint wind breathes upon smouldering embers."

<sup>1</sup> New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.25. For quotations from this volume, see page 503.

# FROM DOVER STRAITS TO THE GOLDEN HORN

MR. SIMONDS' REVIEW OF THE GREAT WAR IN ITS EIGHTH MONTH

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. AT THE DARDANELLES

IN the whole progress of the Great War no month saw such a sudden and dramatic change as March. Week after week of weary winter campaigning had held the gaze of the world fixed upon the plains of Flanders and Champagne, upon the marshes of East Prussia, where battles without more than local importance gave temporary advantage first to the Allies and then to the Germans. In the monotonous similitude of the official bulletins even a world war lost appeal and challenge to an audience become surfeited with the reports of indecisive engagements.

But with the opening of March a new horizon was suddenly lifted. From the Straits of Dover and the banks of the Vistula the center of battle shifted to the seagate of Constantinople. At the Dardanelles the guns of the greatest armada in the history of the world awakened the echoes of the hills behind the Troad and the Anglo-French fleet was followed by the transports, come to land troops on the Gallipoli peninsula where in 1355 the Osmanli Turks under Suleiman had entered Europe on the triumphal march that was to lead to the walls of Vienna over the ruins of the Empire of the East and the nascent Slav states of the Balkans.

In October the 42-centimeter guns of Germany had leveled the walls of Antwerp, crushed the gallant but impotent Belgian state, and carried the legend of Teutonic might to the shores of the North Sea, to the very gates of Calais and Boulogne. Now it was the 15-inch guns of the *Queen Elizabeth* which took up the response along the shores which had seen the hosts and fleets of Xerxes pass forward on their great adventure, which had witnessed the crossing of Alexander the Great as he, carrying back the conquering message of the West, had set forth on his tremendous expedition. In

a single day, too, the world turned from the contemplation of campaigns of the Twentieth Century to one more combat in the lands and waters forever memorable in Homer's song.

Nor was the new phase less appealing in immediate political significance than in historical challenge. Russia, heavily beaten about the Masurian Lakes, thrown back upon the defensive from the Baltic to the Rumanian frontier, was proclaimed by German reports to be on the point of giving up the conflict. She had so far borne the burden of the world conflict in a measure beyond the expectations of the civilized world. At Tannenberg, at Lodz, at the Masurian Lakes, she had sacrificed her hundreds of thousands, while French and British troops remained idly in their trenches or failed in their local offensives.

But even as the German forecast was proclaimed, the guns of Admiral Carden's fleet at the Dardanelles sounded the coming of a new day for Russian hope. The dream of Peter the Great, the enduring purpose of the Romanoffs, the deep and potent emotion of every Orthodox Greek Catholic, all these were roused to new life, not merely by a fresh attack upon Stamboul, but by the exchange of assurances between Russia and Britain across the intervening distance of a continent at war. In Petrograd Sergius Sazonoff announced the approach of the day when Russia would realize her great ambition of an avenue to the open sea. From London Sir Edward Grey responded with the solemn assurance that England and Russia were at one on the question of a warm water gate for the Slav.

Thus, in a single hour the Eastern Question changed its whole appearance. Thus England at last and unmistakably, however guarded the diplomatic phrase, renounced the policy of Beaconsfield, the policy which had provoked the Crimean War, and sent the British fleet to the Sea of Marmora to



destroy the Treaty of San Stefano. In an hour of Russian dejection Germany had sought to draw the great Slav state away from her allies and those allies, through England, had answered with the promise of the prize for which three centuries of Russian history had been filled with war and effort.

Once more sea power had demonstrated its tremendous advantage, its supreme power. At the first crisis in the relations of the Grand Alliance the battleships of Britain and France, keeping the seas, while Germany's fleet lay idly in home waters, had restored the threatened solidarity of the Kaiser's enemies.

## II. THE RUSSIAN ASPECT

In an examination of the meaning of the attack upon the Dardanelles it is necessary first to discuss the Russian aspect, then to examine the immediate and remoter effects upon the neighboring and neutral states. For two hundred years, from the moment when the Treaty of Carlowitz gave the first sign of the decay of the Osmanli, Vienna and Petrograd had openly contested for the estate of the "Sick Man of the East." From the first opening of the Eastern Question to the Congress of Berlin the alliance of the sea powers and of the central European nations had checked Slav ambition. Three times in the last century Byzantium had seemed within the grasp of the Romanoffs and three times it had slipped away.

At the Congress of Berlin Bismarck, after long consideration, decided between Austria and Russia as a future German ally. The Treaty of Berlin, which gave Macedonia back to the Turk, Bosnia to Austria, Cyprus to England, was the beginning of the drama that led inevitably to the tragedy at Serajevo and the catastrophe of the world war. Beaten in Manchuria, Russia turned back to Europe in the opening years of the present century. On the morning after Mukden there was renewed in the Balkans the old battle between Romanoff and Hapsburg.

In 1908, when Austria announced the annexation of Bosnia, Russia suffered the greatest humiliation in her long history. Following that she began the rapid and successful diplomatic campaign which provoked the first Balkan War. Winning Serbia away from her Viennese leading strings, she made her the Russian soldier on the Danube, a soldier fired by dreams of the redemption of Serb lands beyond the Danube and the Drina.

Turkey having become in turn the recruit of Vienna and Berlin, Russia erected that Balkan confederacy which at Lule Burgas and Kumanovo shattered, not Turkish empire in Europe, but Austro-German supremacy south of the Danube.

Austrian diplomacy answered with the second Balkan War, in which Bulgaria, impelled by suggestions from Vienna, assailed her old allies. But at the Bregalnitz and at Kilkis, Serb and Greek armies completed their conquests of Macedonia, and Rumania, now yielding to Petrograd advice, entered the lists to seize from Austria's recruit lands between the Danube and the Black Sea. Bulgaria now lay in ruins, an eloquent reminder of the impotence of Austria, while Serbia, newly swollen with pride and hope, resumed her campaign for Bosnia.

Once more Austrian and German diplomacy sought to bind up the wounds of Turkey, to make the Sultan a vassal of the Kaiser. In this, thanks to Enver Bey, they succeeded, and the coming of the great war, provoked by Russia's Serbian soldier, saw the Osmanli marching to the notes of "Deutschland ueber Alles."

Germany had thus placed her mailed fist upon the Bosphorus. Between Russian hope and realization stood a Turkey, in fact, ruled from Berlin. In the same fashion German control of the head of Islam procured the proclamation of the Jihad, the Holy War against the British and the French, that is, the promulgation of the call to arms to the millions of the followers of the Prophet in India and North Africa, the summons to rise and slay their Christian masters, which was heard in all the bazaars from Benares to Tlemcen.

A common necessity then united France, England, and Russia. Turkey must be destroyed,—the Turkey ruled by the Kaiser,—that these nations might hold their colonies. England answered first by the annexation of Egypt. Presently Russia followed by the announcement of Sazonoff, echoed by Sir Edward Grey,—the momentous announcement that after 462 years the Turk must depart from Stamboul, that the Cross was to replace the Crescent upon St. Sophia, that, with Anglo-French permission, aid, approval, "the bear that walks like a man" was to descend the Black Sea and occupy the heights above the Golden Horn, that the Russian banner was to be raised on the crumbling walls, at the very breach through which Mohammed II. had, four centuries earlier, entered to meet and slay the last and noblest



Photograph by Brown Brothers

#### A DETACHMENT OF AUSTRIAN UHLANS

(This picture, fresh from the Austrian war zone, gives some indication of the dashing character of the Dual Empire's cavalry, which is composed largely of Hungarians, who are famous for their horsemanship)



© Brown Brothers

AN AUSTRIAN OUTPOST ON THE SAVE RIVER READY FOR THE NEW AUSTRIAN OFFENSIVE AGAINST SERBIA



of the Palacologi and end the Byzantine Empire.

Taken by the Anglo-French fleet, Constantinople would remain in Allied hands until the end of the war, the gage of Russian fidelity to her allies, the assurance to Russia of a reward for such fidelity beyond the gift of the steel-encircled German Emperor. Meantime, Russian grain flowing out would relieve the sufferings of the Allies, reduce the price of bread in Paris and London. Conversely arms and ammunition would flow back, the resources of the world in the manufacture of war material would be at the service of Russia, hitherto blockaded by the Kaiser and winter on the north and the Sultan in the south.

### III. WAVERING NEUTRALS

But the guns of the fleet at the Dardanelles sounded echoes elsewhere than in Petrograd and London. Athens, Sofia, Bucharest, even Rome, heard with new interest, with new and deep emotion, the cannonade that seemed to forecast the end of an empire and the beginning of an era in the Near East.

For Bulgaria the sudden change was of immediate meaning and Bulgaria held the key of the Balkan situation. In the Second Balkan War her allies, acting under the impulse that was given in Petrograd, had stripped her of most of her conquests. Macedonia, from Monastir to the Rhodopians, had gone to Serbia; Kavala, Seres, Drama, had passed from Ferdinand to Constantine; her fairest Danubian province, hers before the wars, later had been occupied and annexed by Rumania. The Turk had come back to Adrianople. After all her sacrifices, she had gained next to nothing.

Russia was held responsible for all this and against Russia the Bulgar henceforth sung his "hymn of hate." Thus when Serbia, impelled by Russia, entered into her unequal conflict with Austria, every sympathy in Sofia was against her. That Bulgarian regiments did not appear at Nish was due solely to the fact that Rumanian and Greek troops on the Bulgarian frontiers served to demonstrate that Serbia's allies were prepared to fulfil their treaty obligations and maintain the terms of the Peace of Bucharest.

But, by way of revenge, when Russian troops entered Bukovina and the Czar beckoned to Greek and Rumanian armies to join in the war and realize their national aspirations in Albania and Transylvania, there came from Sofia the solemn warning that

Bulgaria would reserve her right to avenge her injuries, should the opportunity come, unless her lost provinces were restored. This warning had sufficed to immobilize Rumania and Greece for months, but for all three nations the coming of the Allied Armada opened a new situation.

Venizelos, the Cavour of the New Greece, the great man of the Balkans, promptly sought to join Greece to the Allies, but his effort failed. King Constantine, perhaps influenced by his wife, the sister of the Kaiser, possibly still restrained by the Bulgarian menace, intervened, the Boulé was dissolved, Greece was thus compelled to wait a month before her public opinion could express itself, but there was no mistaking the direction of Greek national sympathy, Greek desire to redeem the million of Hellenes in Asia Minor, about whose heads another Allied fleet at Smyrna was bringing Ottoman power down in ruins.

In Sofia there was equal agitation, and a strong political party demanded that Bulgaria's armies should reënter Thrace, should seize the propitious moment to retake Adrianople, as the Turks had retaken it from the Bulgars, should carry their frontier down to the Enos-Midia line agreed upon at London in 1913. But this meant to join the Allies, conceivably to renounce all hope of retaking Macedonia or the Danubian province stolen by Rumania. In this situation Ferdinand followed the example of Constantine and Bulgarian action was halted. Yet the new spirit in Sofia and in Athens was an evidence of the decline of German influence, of the fatal advantage that would come to the Allies if they should take Constantinople and gain possession of the resources with which to feed Balkan appetites.

In Rumania the situation was more complex. The prospect of Russian possession of the Straits was a peril for the Rumanians, who unlike the Greeks and the Bulgarians had no direct and open exit to the Mediterranean. On the other hand the prospect of Bulgarian expansion, of Greek gains, consequent upon a decision by these states to cast their lots with the Allies, was a new incentive to Bucharest to join in the combat and by conquering Transylvania and Bukovina preserve Rumanian influence as the greatest of the Balkan states.

While the bombardment of the forts progressed there was no mistaking the effect that Austro-German influence, quite as much as Turkish power, was crumbling in the Near East. A new Balkan situation was arising,

Greece, Rumania, Bulgaria, Serbia, their racial integrity restored, promised to constitute a wall of strong little nations, perhaps presently united by common necessities, a wall against the German ambition to construct a Teutonic empire from Berlin to Bagdad, to the frontiers of India. More than this, the passing of the Turk promised to leave to the aged Francis Joseph an undisputed title to the throne of "the Sick Man of the East." For what the little peoples of the Balkans had achieved, it was plain the little peoples of Austria-Hungary would now seek with new determination,—the great blessing of liberty, of freedom.

#### IV. ITALY ALSO STIRS

If the reveille of the guns of the *Queen Elizabeth* at the entrance of the Dardanelles was heard in the Balkan capitals, it was even more plainly audible in the Italian capital, and once more the approach of the fall of Constantinople aroused the emotions of Rome. Nor was there any mistaking the direction of national sentiment. Here, as elsewhere, sea power was making itself supreme.

In August Italy had decided not to follow her allies. To every appeal of Berlin and Vienna she had answered with a cool negative, while the calm voice of diplomacy was emphasized by the cries of the mobs which demanded that Italy should complete her destiny by annexing the Trentino and Trieste and taking up again the pathway of Venetian glory along the Dalmatian coast.

In November Germany had sent Prince von Bülow, an ex-Chancellor of the Empire, to Rome to try again. He had offered Italy Nice and Savoy, Corsica and Tunis, the empire of the western Mediterranean. But to all these poisoned gifts Italy had remained unresponsive. While these offers were being made, another Garibaldi had given his life for France in the trenches of the Wöevre and the whole Italian people approached his bier with an emotion and a national spirit that warned German agents and Italian statesmen that the Italian people had forgotten Nice in the burning memory of Austrian tyranny and were looking east, not west, to see Italian greatness realized.

Presently German diplomacy changed its direction. Where it had sought to buy alliance, it now contracted for neutrality, and the Trentino and a strip of territory east of the Italian frontier along the Isonzo were suggested as the price of Italy's neutrality. But from such a bargain Vienna and Rome both shrunk. Vienna held the price too high,

Rome, too small; and German irritation at Austrian obstinacy began to find its way into the German official press for the first time.

In this situation the attack upon Constantinople aroused a fresh outburst of Italian feeling, gave new impetus to the forces which seemed to be drawing Italy into the war. In deciding not to attack France in 1914, Italy had definitely renounced a struggle for the supremacy of the western Mediterranean. But the fall of Turkey would mean the partition of Asia Minor, the division of the Egean Islands. To the conquerors would belong the prize. France, England, and Russia might expect to divide the Turkish estate, throwing to the Balkan states such morsels as generosity or policy might dictate. For Italy there would be no share, if Italy bore no part of the burden of conquest.

Once more as in the unhappy Tunis time, there was quoted the Italian proverb: "The late guest fares ill." Italy had come too late to take her rightful place in North Africa. Of the Roman estate Tunis, Algeria, Morocco had gone to France, Egypt to Great Britain. For herself she had gained only sterile Tripoli. Henceforth the control of the Mediterranean would belong to the Anglo-French alliance. To a neutral Italy this alliance, once Germany was conquered and Austria overwhelmed, need make no concession. Rather it would be Italy that would hereafter have to yield.

Thus it was that the fate of Constantinople became an Italian problem and once more the world heard of new Italian mobilization, of a fleet of superdreadnoughts waiting on the tide, as it were. Even Berlin, long hopeful, began at last to give unmistakable signs of apprehension, a fresh confession that fate and diplomacy were alike against the Kaiser, whose splendid armies were still winning tremendous but fruitless victories, while sea power and Allied diplomacy were little by little undermining the whole structure of the Central European Alliance.

In the third week of March, Bucharest and Rome, Sofia and Athens were all the centers of new military activities, the sources of new forecasts all pointing unmistakably to the entrance of other nations into the conflict, and to no one of these nations could Germany look for assistance. Thus, if one could think of the Central European Alliance as a human figure, gigantic in proportions, the head and shoulders of Germany would emerge unshaken, but they would rest upon the dwindling Austrian body, itself poised on Turkish feet of clay. These feet



of clay the Allies had now attacked with the contemporary prospect of achieving the overthrow of the giant.

## V. AS TO THE TURK

Such were the political and diplomatic aspects of the Constantinople campaign. Such were the circumstances in the immediate future which were now forced upon the attention of the whole world. There remained the question of the Turk, himself. Oddly enough, in the welter of world issues, his own fortunes dropped out of sight.

Yet in later history the passing of the Osmanli from Europe must have a real meaning. More than five centuries and a half had elapsed since he came across the very straits where Anglo-French cannon were now blasting a road to Byzantium. When a century later Constantinople itself fell, all Europe had suddenly to consider a new peril, the approach from the East of that Islam Charles Martel had halted in the West. Two centuries later, when Western Europe signed the Treaty of Westphalia, the Turk had carried his empire beyond Budapest and to the gates of Vienna. Greek culture had been checked, Christianity in southeastern Europe conquered; Serb, Bulgar, Rumanian, Hungarian, Albanian, and Greek had fought and yielded, and it had been left to Sobieski of Poland to save Europe, to rescue Austria, and to open the way for the fall, first of Poland and then of the Ottoman.

As late as Napoleon's time Turkey was still to be reckoned with and the great Emperor dreamed of establishing himself at Constantinople, after having revived the glories of Alexander the Great and made the East a new-world empire. In the Nineteenth Century it was the little Balkan states that fired the imagination of the world by their struggles for liberty and Modern Germany and United Italy in fact followed in the pathway blazed for them by the Greek and the Serb.

From the Congress of Vienna to the Peace of Bucharest, too, the Eastern Question had weighed heavily upon all European statesmen. French participation with England in the Crimean War had led to her downfall in 1870; for Russia watched idly while the Prussians approached Paris. The antagonism of Russia and England had provided Germany with the opportunity to develop commercially, while England was watching the imaginary rival behind the Hindu-Kush. Germany had labored and failed to cement the Triple Alliance because Austria and Italy were naturally and inevitably rival claimants

to the Turkish estate in the Egean and the Adriatic.

Turkey now having elected for Germany in the world war, it was becoming clear that the sands of her empire were running out. She had sent her troops to the Caucasus to relieve the pressure upon Austrian troops in Galicia and they had been routed. She had thrust at Britain in Egypt and failed. Already east and west her beaten armies were returning, her generals, for the most part German, were hastening back to defend Gallipoli and Constantinople. More than this, in her own capital there was heard the murmuring against the German, which promised to end in revolution once the prospect of disaster could no longer be concealed.

Philo-German Turks had gambled on German success, it was now apparent that German success in the north would not save Turkey, and the strong faction which opposed German influence day by day made head at Stamboul, while the crowds in the streets clamored for bread and victory, to be answered only by defeat and want. As March progressed the situation at the Golden Horn became more desperate. Rumors came of the departure of the Sultan for Brusa, ancient capital of the Osmanli in the hills above the Sea of Marmora, for Konieh, far inland on the Bagdad railroad.

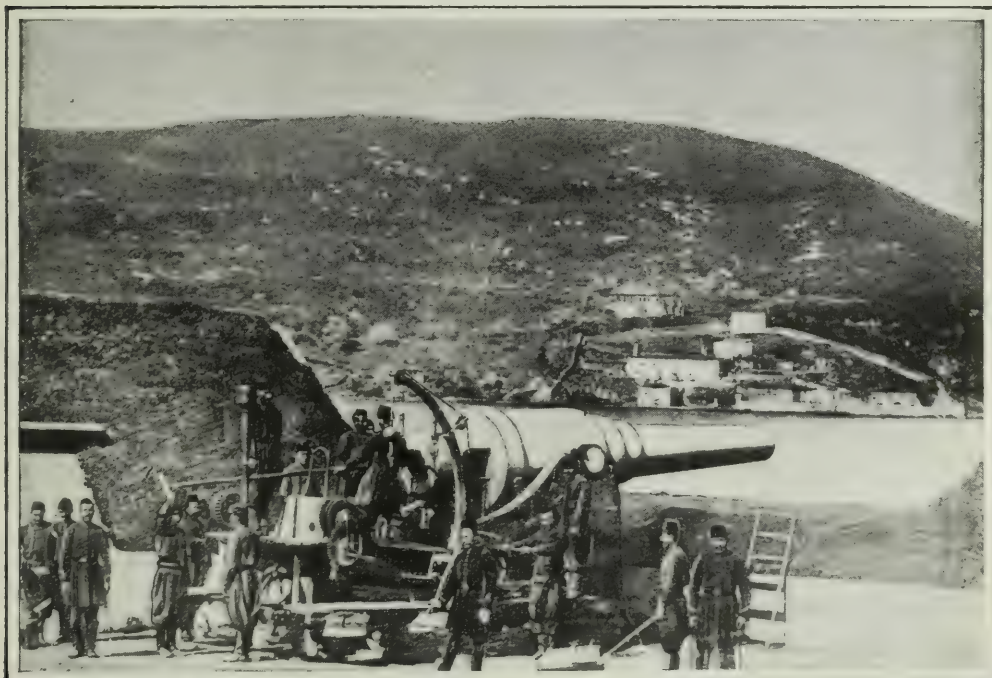
Five centuries and a half of European power seemed plainly approaching a term for the Turk as the Allied fleet daily progressed in its slow march eastward. Russian armies entered Armenia; British troops ascended the Euphrates from its mouth toward the great inland valley. From the Egean coast the Mohammedan populations fled before the guns of Allied warships; along the Black Sea Russian battleships also spread ruin. Nowhere in the whole gigantic picture was there the smallest evidence of hope for the Osmanli. If Belgium had suffered, continued to suffer for her Allies, the world now believed that Turkey was dying for those whose battle she had volunteered to fight.

A touch of romance there was added to the picture of ruin by the report that old Abdul Hamid, long a prisoner, had escaped from his gaolers and was planning a new revolution. What thoughts must have come to that sovereign who had kept Turkey intact for so many years by matching Christian nation against Christian nation, as he beheld his ancient defenders and his oldest and most relentless foe marching against his capital united, in the determination to destroy his empire!



Photograph by Paul Thompson

TURKISH RAW MATERIAL



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

INSIDE ONE OF THE TURKISH FORTS AT THE ENTRANCE TO THE DARDANELLES SHOWING THE FAMOUS  
MADGAR KALE BATTERY





THE DARDANELLES

## VI. AT THE STRAITS

The actual naval operation at the Dardanelles is simply described. About a hundred miles west of Constantinople the Sea of Marmora narrows to a channel in places little more than a mile wide. For forty miles this narrow channel separates the Asiatic mainland from the Gallipoli Peninsula. A little more than half way between the Sea of Marmora and the Egean the channel passes through a throat, reminiscent of the entrance to Santiago Harbor in Cuba. At this point on both sides are a line of strong forts. Here, too, is the village of Nagara, or the site of Abydos, where Leander and Lord Byron

swam the Hellespont. West of this point the channel widens, but at the entrance to the Egean it again narrows and here other forts less formidable were erected by the Turks.

The Gallipoli peninsula is hardly more than fifteen miles wide at the widest point and not more than five at Bulair, where it joins the European mainland. North of the peninsula is the Gulf of Saros, an open roadstead running deep into the European shores. East of the entrance to the straits in the Sea of Marmora are several islands, which are also fortified and constitute the last line of water defenses of Constantinople, for the city itself is at the mercy of any fleet that can win clear of the third line of defenses. In

addition to the forts, the Turks relied upon many mine fields.

The advantage of the Allies, the single circumstance that made the attack possible, was the superiority of the fleet artillery to the Turkish guns. Thus the *Queen Elizabeth*, with her 15-inch guns, wholly outranged the forts, which had only 12-inch guns. Precisely as the heavier German guns were able to reduce Liège and Antwerp from their emplacements out of range of the smaller caliber guns of the Belgians, the artillery of the



THE GOLDEN HORN

Stanford's Geogr. Estab't, London.

Allies now leveled the Turkish forts without loss in the early days.

In the first days of the operation, which began in the last week in February, the forts at the entrance of the straits were silenced and by the second week in March, the Allied fleet was within range of the forts at the narrowest point in the straits. These were attacked from the straits by one squadron and by indirect fire from the Gulf of Saros across the Gallipoli peninsula by another at the same time, French and British warships alternating in their advances.

As the forts were reduced, the warships moved up the straits preceded by a fleet of mine-sweepers which cleared the waters of these perils. The progress was necessarily slow and bad weather interrupted the operations on several days. Between the British and French reports of the results and those of the Turks, relayed by Berlin, there was natural and enormous discrepancy. The Turks denied all success to the Allies, apart from the reduction of the forts at the entrance, which were reported to have been antiquated and poorly armed. The Allies, on their part, gave the defenders full credit for a stern resistance, attributed to German gunners the relatively accurate firing, but continued to report steady progress. By March 13, Vice-Admiral Carden was quoted as forecasting the arrival of the Allies at Constantinople by Easter, a holiday oddly appropriate for the restoration of Christian rule in the Moslem capital.

In the third week in March, it was conceded that in addition to their great fleet, made up of British warships assembled from all over the Seven Seas and reinforced by some of the best of the boats in the French Mediterranean fleet, transports were arriving bringing French troops from Africa and presumably British troops from Egypt, now freed from the peril of a Turkish attack by Suez. The mission of these troops was plainly to land on either shore of the straits under cover of the guns of the fleet and complete the reduction of the forts. Great Turkish armies were also reported as reaching the imperilled forts and taking position on the Gallipoli peninsula.

Of itself the operation seemed lacking in the spectacular. There was no attempt at raids; rather there seemed to be a slow, deliberate advance, a methodical reduction of shore batteries and careful mine-sweeping. At the same moment, a Russian fleet approached the Black Sea entrance to the Bosphorus and began a similar operation at the

eastern gateway. To meet this, the pathetically weak Turkish fleet within the Dardanelles was withdrawn to Constantinople.

In the third week of March, the operation was proceeding in this careful fashion when without warning three battleships of the Allied fleet, the *Irresistible* and the *Ocean*, both British, and the *Bouvet*, French, were blown up and sunk by floating mines while engaged, with seven other warships, in attacking the forts in the Narrows of the Dardanelles. Vice-Admiral Carden, who had been incapacitated by illness, was succeeded in the chief command by Rear-Admiral John Michael de Robeck.

## VII. ON LAND

East and west on land no major operation occurred during the first three weeks of March. In Northern Poland the Russians, defeated at the Battle of the Masurian Lakes, retreated to the Niemen, the Bobr, and the Narew. Behind this line they rallied and took the offensive. But after brief successes new German armies coming south from Mława again put the Russians on the defensive and the whole campaign dropped temporarily to a dead level of local and minor combats.

South of the Vistula in Poland, the lines remained with little change, although here also the Russians claimed small advances which were matched by equal claims of their opponents. In Galicia the Russian defense apparently succeeded in halting and turning back the ambitious Austrian drive through Bukovina and by Stanislaw and Halisz at Lemberg. Certainly after a steady advance for some days the Austro-German armies halted, the Russian re-occupation of Czernowitz was forecast, and finally floods of the Dniester and Pruth temporarily stopped all operations.

Along the eastern and northern slopes of the Carpathians, both Russian and Austrian reports agreed that the fighting was steady and murderous. Both sides claimed local advantages, but there was no reason to dispute the Russian claim that they had succeeded in foiling a great Austro-German drive to relieve Przemyśl, now in its fifth month of siege, to retake Lemberg, to clear the Galician province of the Russian forces which had held it since September. For the rest the March battle in the east seemed drawn.

There remained the possibility that the Germans would succeed in their new drive at Warsaw from East Prussia by the fortified line of Novo Georgievsk, or cut the



Petrograd railroad east of Warsaw and south of the Bug. Along a broad front from Kovno, in the face of Grodno, of Lomza, and Ostrolenka, German columns were operating and heavy artillery assailed the forts of Ossovetz. But the time of the thaws was now close at hand and when this time came the whole Trans-Vistulan region would be transformed into a swamp. What therefore seemed most likely was that the Germans were merely taking position beyond their own frontiers, having cleared East Prussia of invaders and preparing for a defensive campaign here.

In France and Belgium there was little more to record. Between Rheims and the Argonne the French attempted their most considerable offensive since the Alsatian campaign had halted. Pushing north in the Plain of Chalons, they sought to interpose between German armies before Verdun and Rheims. Their objectives were the railway lines which, coming south from Sedan, touch Vouziers and turn west to feed the district west of Rheims. Could they cut these lines the French would partially isolate the Germans before Rheims and be on their flank and reaching toward their rear.

Could they push this advance north from Vouziers to the Meuse they would cut the great trunk line between Metz and western France by which the Germans moved their corps east or west as the emergency arose.

But they made little progress. Le Mesnil, Souain, Beauséjour remained steadily in the dispatches, and on the fields where Attila had been defeated and Kellerman had won Valmy the French achieved no new or considerable victory.

About La Bassée the British in the second week of March made a sudden forward thrust, capturing a few miles of ground and the village of Neuve Chapelle. La Bassée and Lille were their objectives. But the fight for La Bassée had begun on October 20, and on March 15 it had not ended. The importance of La Bassée arose from the fact that it was a single isolated hill rising out of the plain and covering several important highways and railroads. But every attack since the October struggle had so far failed.

For the rest in France there was heard the whispers of the new "push" to begin with the spring, and spring was at hand. It was an un concealed fact that for weeks British troops had been pouring into France. There was no longer any secret made of the news that the advance guard of Kitchener's "million" were at last come to France. But from the Yser to the Vosges the battle lagged. The winter campaign was closing, but it was closing on the lines on which it had begun. German defenses in France still held. Joffre's tactics were limited to "nibbling." Great armies were waiting expectantly, but they continued to wait.



# CONSTANTINOPLE AND THE TURKS

By REV. GEORGE F. HERRICK, D.D.

A MAGNIFICENT city and a wonderful people. When we read the record of the impress which the Ottoman Turks have stamped upon the life of the human race we have to ask ourselves, "Are we reading history or fiction?" We watch a nation's birth, its growth into the place of supreme power among the nations: then we trace its slow decay, till, subdued and despairing, a negligible factor in the life of the race, it disappears in the obscurity from which it emerged almost seven centuries ago.

On the west bank of the Euphrates River in the year 1227 A.D. were grouped four hundred horsemen, attended by perhaps double that number of women and slaves on foot. The leader of the band was Ertogrul, who died at the age of ninety in 1288. He was the father of Othman (or Osman) and the grandfather of Orkhan. These are the three names mentioned with the greatest pride and reverence by all Ottomans till this day.

Through the hospitality of the Seljukian king, then ruling over a large part of Asia Minor, Ertogrul and his tribe became peaceably possessed of ample space for growth in the very fertile plains of Angora. By natural increase of the tribe, by increments from neighboring clans, by tactful agreements, and later on by some vigorous fighting, the Ottoman dominion was extended and strengthened, till, in a hundred years, that is, in 1326, we find there is no longer a Seljuk empire; the Turkish Sultan is firmly established in Brusa as his capital city. The growth had been phenomenally rapid. That was the year when Othman died, after a reign of thirty-eight years. His son Orkhan's reign extended to 1359. In 1355 Orkhan, appealed to by a rival of the Byzantine emperor for aid against his enemy, crossed into Europe. He then added Gallipoli and the surrounding region to his dominion, and it was but two years after his death in 1359 that Adrianople was occupied and in 1367 became the acknowledged capital of the Ottoman empire, and so remained till the conquest of Constantinople in 1453.

There still remain, both in Brusa and

in Adrianople, some of the grandest and most beautiful mosques (always the most imposing edifices in Moslem lands) which the Turks have anywhere possessed.

The reign of the illustrious Bayazid, the "Thunderbolt," (1389-1403) and his life's sad ending fall within the period when Adrianople was the Turkish capital. It is doubtful if there is to be found in history any parallel to the increase of the Turks in the number of the people and the expansion of their territory in the period of a hundred and seventy years, from 1230 to 1400.

## THE APEX OF TURKISH POWER

We cannot here give even a sketch of Ottoman history during those years of rapid conquests in Southeastern Europe. The final collapse of the already rotten Byzantine empire at the conquest of Constantinople by Sultan Mohammed II, the considerateness shown by the conqueror to his Christian subjects, the alternations between mercy and cruel oppression which have characterized Turkish rule during the centuries of their dominion are all familiar to students of history.

The strength and glory of the Ottoman empire culminated during the long reign of Suleiman the "Magnificent," 1520-1566. His empire extended from near the border of Germany to the frontiers of Persia. It included, in addition to what we of this and the preceding generation have been accustomed to think of as European Turkey, that is, Serbia, Albania, Bulgaria, Thrace, Macedonia, Montenegro,—the whole Balkan peninsula,—Greece, Rumania, and nearly the whole of Hungary also. The empire in Africa also was of immense extent, covering nearly all of the Africa which was then included within the zone of civilization.

There was no state then comparable to the Ottoman in extent of territory, in population, and in the number of different peoples ruled. The Ottoman power was the terror of Europe and of Asia, both on land and on the sea. Twice did the armies of the Turks reach the very walls of Vienna. As com-





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PANORAMIC VIEW OF CONSTANTINOPLE TAKEN FROM THE TOWER

pared with Turkey how small was England or France or Germany!

The time since the Ottomans first appeared in human history till now when they seem about to make their exit from the world stage is 688 years. The death of Suleiman falls almost midway; that is, the periods of growth and of decay are equal.

#### THE OTTOMAN DECLINE

The break-up of the empire, which we think of as occurring little by little during the last hundred years, actually began when Suleiman was scarcely cold in his grave. Internal moral decay set in, effeminacy in high life, a riot of base intrigue, sultans deposed by the power of the Janizaries,—picked soldiers of Christian origin, introduced by Orkhan, destroyed by Mahmoud II in 1826, never more than 20,000 in number,—it is a record of degeneracy from that day to this.

When Suleiman died Russia was, in comparison with Turkey, a weak, almost a negligible, power. Compare the two states to-day. Intelligent Turks have themselves been making the comparison, in keen consciousness of the height from which they have fallen, and of the depth to which they have descended. In profound humiliation they face the record of their national decay.

We need not go back quite a hundred years to trace the more rapid break-up of the Ottoman power. This began with the Battle of Navarino, October 20, 1827, when, as now, England, France, and Russia were found together opposed to Turkey. On that victory hung the crushing of the power of Turkey by sea and the liberation of Greece from Turkish rule. The carving of new states or principalities out of the body politic of Turkey followed in rapid succession—Rumania, Serbia, the Lebanon, Montenegro, Egypt, Bulgaria, Albania.

#### CONSTANTINOPLE THE MAGNIFICENT

Before we examine more closely conditions within the imperial city which have made certain, sooner or later, the catastrophe which now fixes the attention of the civilized world, let us look from without at the city itself. As a site for a great city that of Constantinople is absolutely unrivaled. Approaching it in the early morning, on the Sea of Marmora, your course bears northward as you near Seraglio Point. The sun on your right brings into bold relief the towers, the splendid mosques, and other stately buildings on the heights to your left. Now the beautiful Bosphorus opens right before you as you turn westward into the entrance to the Golden Horn.



OF THE WAR OFFICE, LOOKING ACROSS TO THE ASIATIC SHORE

To see the city you have five excursions to make, and when made you seem to have seen five cities, so diverse is the impression made. These five views are that gained in a ride along the old walls of Theodosius and Heraclius, reaching from the Marmora to the Golden Horn; the view from the height above the village of Eyub on the Horn; the view from the hill above Scutari on the Asiatic side; the views requiring a full day in a sail up the Bosphorus and down to the Princes' Islands in the Marmora, and lastly a cayique ride by moonlight on a summer night down the Bosphorus from Buyukdere to the harbor. It is an excursion in paradise.

#### ABSOLUTISM AT ITS WORST

We have now to enter the city of Constantinople as students of those factors in human life which make or mar, which build up or destroy, cities, states, and nations.

Of the sultans who have ruled over the Ottoman empire during the last hundred years, of only one, Mahmoud II, 1808-1839, can it be said that he possessed both the ability and the purpose to govern in the interest of his subjects as he understood what that required. His son Abdul Medjid, 1839-1861, was a good-intentioned but weak man. Fuad and Ali Pashas were the able men of the time. Abdul Medjid's brother, Abdul

Aziz, 1861-1876, was chiefly famous for expending enormous sums of borrowed money on palaces and a useless fleet of ironclads and on lavish gifts to his favorites.

The long series of autocratic and irresponsible sultans was fitly closed by one who ruled a third of a century, 1876-1909, in a manner well known to the whole civilized world. During his reign, while everywhere else peoples were making progress in material welfare and in general education, in attaining the rights and privileges of free men, the peoples of Turkey were sinking into hopeless apathy, falling far behind those peoples west of them, recently freed from the Turkish yoke, in every form of human well being, or they were secretly plotting against their government. Political and politico-ecclesiastical intrigue, for which Constantinople has always been famous, was increasingly prevalent and baleful there and at the provincial capitals. Spies were everywhere, spies upon spies, Abdul Hamid's spies spying upon the people and spying and spied upon by Russian and other spies. Thousands of good men were exiled or voluntarily fled the country. The Turkish "genius for governing" by pitting race against race reached its climax. The very word liberty was banished from the speech of men.

In the midst of the chaos, the Kaiser be-



came the avowed friend of the astute Abdul Hamid, sent him his congratulations and a present, over the suppression by a river of blood of Armenian sedition, and gained from the Sultan valuable concessions.

The discontent over the cruel absolutism of Abdul Hamid suddenly burst into flame in July, 1908. First Enver and Niazi and then Mahmoud Shevket were the lauded heroes of the popular movement. The "Young Turks" at first did excellent work and were applauded all over Europe. Whenever and so long as the counsels of Kamil and Nazim Pashas, men of sagacity and probity, Turkey's real patriots, were followed by the new leaders, the hopes of all friends of the Turkish people grew into confident expectation of possible reform of government administration, and consequent realization of popular welfare and progress.

The causes, the conduct, and the results of the Balkan wars are so recent and so well known that we need not dwell upon their harrowing details.

After all the calamities the Turks have suffered in the recent years they were making heroic efforts to realize the hopes and plans with which they started six years ago.

#### TURKEY BECOMES PRO-GERMAN

When in August last Europe burst into flame Turkey wisely remained neutral. The Sultan, the heir-apparent, the Grand Vizier, the large majority of the leaders of the people, in and out of office, Mussulman and non-Mussulman, were for maintaining neutrality. It was obviously the only thing to do. For three months this position was maintained. Germany seemed to be everywhere victorious. Enver Bey was, for years before the war with Italy, military attaché of the Turkish Embassy at Berlin. He distinguished himself in the Italian and the Balkan wars. He became par excellence the national hero on the retaking of Adrianople. He married into the Imperial family. He became Minister of War. The Minister of Marine readily supported him. Talaat Bey, Minister of the Interior, hesitated, but finally, not without reluctance, joined with Enver. Already German influence at Constantinople was tremendously strong. The army was drilled and led by German officers. The *Goeben* and *Breslau*, manned by Germans, had replaced the two dreadnoughts built for Turkey in England and retained in the British navy. The pro-German party carried the day. It was Turkey's fatal hour. In Western Europe nobody doubted what the issue

would finally be. As to Russia she was glad that the actual government of Turkey was giving her an open path to the realization of her hopes, cherished for two hundred years, without her being justly charged with aggression.

#### EXIT THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

What is now to be? Amid the uncertainties one thing is certain. As an independent power, a state to be reckoned with among world powers, Turkey passes off the stage. A form of Ottoman government may survive in Asia. For how long? Who can tell? As all modern history shows, any Moslem state is handicapped in the race of human progress by its ancestral faith. It is no better, it is worse off, if its leaders are liberals merely wearing the cloak of Islam. Unhappily while some of the leaders of the Young Turk party were educated in Europe not one of them had the training of an American college, as so many of the formers of the state of Bulgaria had. How different the result!

To return to Constantinople. What is to be her future? It now seems unlikely that Great Britain and France will stand in Russia's way to the full realization of her long-cherished hope. If that hope is realized Greece will be disappointed and aggrieved. It will be difficult to placate Italy. A proposition will doubtless be made for the internationalization of Constantinople. The word is very long and the act will be found extremely difficult. One power must rule there, not two or half a dozen. The final settlement will doubtless be made under some guarantees agreed upon by the Allies.

Russia is not what she was a quarter of a century ago. Liberal ideals have greatly gained in strength among the people, and even in governmental circles in that empire. In any case those straits, the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles, will hereafter be neutral waters.

America's interests in those lands are happily not at all political. They are philanthropic, educational, Christian. They are highly appreciated by all classes and all races, Mussulman and non-Mussulman. American institutions there are many, strategically located, firmly established. The American spirit pervades them. They will remain and they will grow as the years pass, as the inevitable changes take place. They will continue their beneficent work for the coming generations of all those races, our brothers, deserving and destined to share with us in the blessings of a common heritage.

# HOLLAND'S PLAN OF DEFENSE

BY DR. R. J. JESSURUN

**I**N the early days of the war, when speculation of all sorts was rife, the military value of Dutch support was frequently discussed. It is often forgotten that the Dutch military system and organization, as is the case in general with the smaller nations, is principally calculated with a view to the defense of its own territory. While the Hollanders have been successful in making the conquest of their country most difficult, it does not follow that the participation of their forces in another rôle, as supporters of the Allies' campaign, for instance, would greatly influence the outcome, especially as long as the opponents of the allies show no sign of diminution of troops in the field.

Under such circumstances it is easy to imagine that the Dutch forces might be obliged to return to the task for which they were especially designed, probably considerably weakened in the meantime.

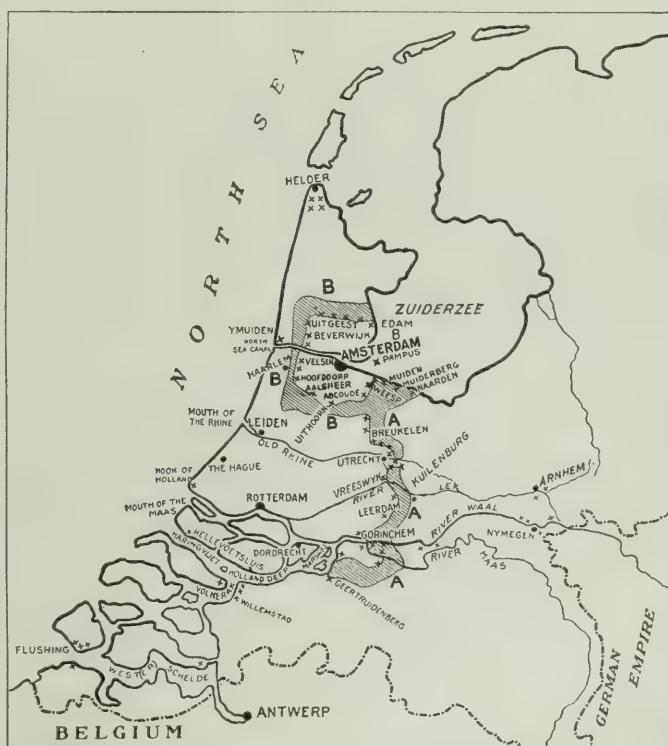
And what does the defense of Holland mean? It means a gradual abandonment of the greater part of her territory and a retirement of all her forces behind a line of defense, known as "the New Holland Water-Line," of great historic fame, but conveying to other than military experts a vague idea of its real nature.

In this manner the Dutch expect to be able to put up the most effective defense of the remaining part of the land, comprising the most populous and wealthy provinces and all the large cities. It is a method of defense that is ancient and has been frequently tried under the most unfavorable conditions. Four times it has proved the salvation of Holland, threatened by the greatest armies France

could assemble. As the present name indicates, the line runs in a somewhat different course to that of the old days and has thereby gained in strength.

This New Holland Water-Line is a long barrier of fortified places, running from the Zuiderzee at Muiderberg and Naarden along Breukelen and Utrecht, to the river Lek at Vreeswyk, from there to the river Merwede by Gorinchem, and finally to the waterway called the New Merwede near Geertruidenberg (see map).

The particular strength of this system is derived from the peculiarity of a large part of Dutch territory. Great portions, of the western provinces especially, lie below the



MAP SHOWING HOLLAND'S SYSTEM OF DEFENSE

(The shaded portion shows the ground which would be inundated for defensive purposes, the water being maintained at a uniform depth of one foot. The Hollanders would make no serious attempt to hold the border country, which does not include a single important town, against an attack. They would retire behind the water-line A-A-A, and if it should become impossible to hold that the army would concentrate within the section B-B-B. An attack from the sea is impossible except at points which are strongly fortified, because the coast is barren waste and the water is shallow.)



high tide of the rivers and surrounding seas, and having been at regular intervals inundated, were for the most part unfit for habitation or cultivation. Most of these marshlands and lakes have been reclaimed during the past centuries by a system of drainage known under the name of "inpoldering."

A protective dike is first built around the territory to be reclaimed, after which the pumping out of the water is proceeded with. This necessitates an ingenious system of canals and reservoirs, as often the water has to be conducted to a series of such reservoirs, each at a little higher level, until a river system is reached, into which the water can, at the proper moment, be finally passed.

This same arrangement remains necessary after the work is completed, to maintain normal conditions in the reclaimed area, called a "polder," now dry land, and often as much as twenty feet below the high tide of the neighboring rivers.

This will enable us to understand the condition which can be brought about when that defensive line is made ready for action. It is simply a reversal of the usual process that will then take place. From the rivers, and in case of an unusual drought from the nearby sea, water is let into certain canals through the regulating sluices in order to raise the water level till an inundation of a desired area, stretching itself just before the above described line of fortified places, is accomplished, without penetrating, however, the territory behind the line, of the same nature and equally low, but properly protected.

The whole operation can be performed in the short space of a few days, and this, independent of the height of the surrounding tide, which was not the case in olden times. In order to obtain this independence and the proper control of the depth of the inundation, additional works had to be erected besides those already in existence for the ordinary use of drainage.

Thus a sheet of water about four miles in width can be placed before the entire line of forts, the depth of which can be regulated. This is very essential, as to be effective a special depth, of less than one foot, must be maintained, at which navigation even in flat-bottomed boats is impossible, while this is sufficient to make wading out of the question, owing to the spongy nature of the soil and the innumerable deep trenches and small canals intersecting this whole territory at very short intervals which normally serve for irrigating purposes.

In a few hours the soil changes into a soggy mass and will not bear the weight of even the lightest troops.

It would, however, be erroneous to imagine that this is formed an unbroken barrier, as such is not the case. All the great communication routes are left open and passage through the inundated area is possible along those highways. This will be obvious when we remember that in the lowlands all the highways, as well as the railroads, run along the top of dikes, for reasons easily understood, and are thus situated often many feet above the surrounding meadows. Those who have traveled through Holland are familiar with the sight of grazing cattle far below, and ships sailing above our heads. The great rivers flowing between their dikes keep the communication further open.

It will be quite evident that the only available entrance to an approaching army is over those dike roads or along the rivers. At these points we shall find the strongest fortifications dominating the narrow avenues, through which only small forces can pass at a time. Superiority of numbers counts here for little. Furthermore, modern military engineering has at its disposal numerous devices for making attempts at passage difficult and hazardous for the enemy.

The above-described defense system is completed by the fortifications of the Holland Deep, Volkerak, and Haringvliet, all broad stretches of water, while an approach from the sea is guarded against by the coast defenses, consisting mainly of the fortifications of the mouths of the Maas and the fortress of Den Helder at the extreme northern point of the mainland of the provinces of North Holland.

The Hook of Holland and the harbor of Ymuiden, at which points the sea canals of Rotterdam and Amsterdam terminate, are, equally protected.

These are the only available entrances on the Dutch coast for large ships, with the exception of the route along Flushing and the Wester Scheldt to Antwerp, for the defense of which (lying, however, outside the above-described protected area) fortifications are to be found, mainly around Flushing.

The entire North Sea coast of Holland is sandy beach and is protected by practically an interrupted line of sand dunes, stretching a few miles inland. This explains the absence of other than mere fishing harbors. The ocean here is so shallow that ships cannot approach the coast, and navigation is only possible several miles off.

At the northern end the New Holland Water-Line meets the second defensive system of the country, the fortress of Amsterdam. This is the section selected for a last stand, when the former more extensive line has become untenable. Everything else is then abandoned, the whole country left to the enemy, while all the remaining forces concentrate in this position.

The method used here is based exactly on the same principle, the obstructing line of water forming in this case a complete circle, intersected again by the communication routes. The Zuiderzee forms the water barrier on the eastern side, while inundation is applied everywhere else. The fortification runs as follows: From the Zuiderzee at Edam to Uitgeest, then southward to the east of Beverwyk, Velzen and Haarlem, from there through the Haarlempolder, formerly the Haarlem lake, in the direction of Aalsmeer and Abcoude, finally through Weesp to the Zuiderzee (see map).

The participation of Holland in the war for other reasons than the defense of her

rights or neutrality seems unlikely. Territorial aggrandizement at the expense of a neighboring state is quite foreign to the thoughts of the Hollanders, and would, therefore, be no incentive.

History has given numerous examples where large nations have been unable to assimilate comparatively small provinces taken from neighboring countries at the end of a victorious war, even after a considerable lapse of time.

To have her territory enlarged by the annexation of a section inhabited by people of another, especially larger nationality, would not be a source of additional strength, but, on the contrary, would in the future be a disturbing element and a cause for ill-feeling.

In the final adjustment of affairs at the conclusion of the war, it may be expected that many questions will arise of vital importance to a state situated in the midst of the warring nations. An adequate military preparedness will then prove equally valuable, and assure her greater consideration.



HOLLAND'S ARTILLERY



# WHAT THE WAR IS COSTING EUROPE

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

WHAT may be termed the operating cost of the most destructive war known to man has, in eight months, amounted to \$10,000,000,000. The indirect consequences, such as damage to property, loss to foreign and domestic trade, the vanished toll of the tourist, plus the loss from an actuarial standpoint in the economic value of the killed, maimed permanently, and diseased, produce a debit on the balance-sheet of European nations of fully \$10,000,000,000 more.

The figures are huge, beyond comprehension, and most impressive when set beside the estimated cost of all wars between the years 1793 and 1913. In that century-and-a-quarter period, beginning with Napoleon's career and ending with the second Balkan war, the direct and indirect expenditures in conquest and repulse were \$25,000,000,000. At the present progressive rate of outlay the Great War will only have to go four months longer to parallel the costs of all other struggles since man began to accredit himself as civilized.

The wealth of the peoples engaged in war, and those in Europe who are trying to keep out of it, is about \$400,000,000,000. Considered from this angle the cost or loss does not loom so large; for it is only about 5 per cent. of the resources from which the nations concerned may draw.

## CALCULATED BY THE BILLION AS A UNIT

On the other hand, war loans already negotiated have amounted to \$8,000,000,000, at the rate of a billion dollars a month, so that the debt on which future generations must pay taxes has been increased from 25 to 30 per cent. and with England and Germany, 50 per cent. If the war is prolonged much over a year it will impose on the European taxpayer an annual interest charge about equal to the total United States debt.

In other wars armies have been mobilized in millions of men where now they are being massed in tens of millions. In other years the cost has been reckoned in hundreds of millions of dollars; now the unit of cal-

culation is a billion dollars. It is easy, therefore, to become extravagant in setting down the price of war and to exaggerate the terms.

## FOLLOWING GOVERNMENT LOANS AND ESTIMATES

One cannot go far wrong in footing up the operating cost of the war if one follows closely the government loans and the frequent estimates made before the British Commons by Premier Asquith or Lloyd George, by Finance Minister Ribot, of France, and in the German Reichstag, of the daily toll to the Allies and their opponents. From these sources we have official sanction for the use of the following figures of the military and naval cost from August 1 to April 1:

Great Britain .....	\$2,000,000,000
France .....	1,750,000,000
Russia .....	2,000,000,000
Germany, including Turkey. .	2,500,000,000
Austria-Hungary .....	1,500,000,000

On the side of the Allies there is a further cost of, say, \$200,000,000 for services of Belgium, Serbia, and Japan. Mobilization has cost Holland and Switzerland fully \$150,000,000, and if we use the minimum figure, its cost to Italy has been \$300,000,000. This gives an actual and verifiable cost of approximately \$10,500,000,000, equaling the combined direct and indirect costs of the Napoleonic and Civil wars, the two most expensive of the last four generations, and we will not include in it \$200,000,000 which Spain has had to raise to meet her deficit.

## PROPERTY LOSSES

It is not so simple to reach conclusions as to the property losses of the war. However, very careful calculations have been made by eminent economists concerning the destruction in Belgium, Northern France, Eastern Prussia, and Poland. But in these allowance must be made in order to balance the conflicting opinions of the buyer and the

seller; the one who is to pay the indemnity after the war and him to whom the indemnity is to be paid. At the end of December M. Henri Masson, Avocat of the Court of Appeals of Brussels, placed the loss to Belgium at over \$1,000,000,000. The main items in his account were \$235,000,000 in the destruction of buildings and trade in the cities of Liège, Louvain, Namur, Charleroi, Malines, Dinant, Alost, Tirlemont, Termonde, and Aerschot. The loss in Antwerp and vicinity was estimated at \$100,000,000. Damage in rural districts to crops, cattle, and buildings was placed at \$280,000,000 and to state buildings, railways, bridges, roads, etc., \$240,000,000. Finally, interruption of trade, loss of pay, etc., was put down as \$200,000,000. Three months have elapsed since this compilation was made.

That part of France occupied by German armies since September represents about 4 per cent. of the Republic, in which 8 per cent. of the French population lives. An officer of the Credit Foncier has computed the territory under occupation to have a value of \$1,900,000,000, or 7 per cent. of the entire land value of France. The commercial and industrial implements of the region are appraised at 11 per cent. of the total. All of the Department of Ardennes, 55 per cent. of the Department of Aisne, 12 per cent. of Marne, 25 per cent. of Meurthe and Moselle, 30 per cent. of Meuse, 70 per cent. of Nord, and from 10 to 25 per cent. of several other Departments are under German control. In this territory immense property destruction has occurred. In Rheims alone the loss is said to have been \$250,000,000. In Lille the damage has been almost as great. The fugitive population numbers several millions. A very conservative figure of property destruction would be \$1,500,000,000. France last month appropriated \$100,000,000 for loans to small business interests who had been ruined by the war about them.

When the Russians made their first raid into East Prussia they did \$250,000,000 worth of property damage. Since then towns that were partially destroyed have been wiped out of existence in being caught between the fire of the opposing armies. In Poland devastation as complete as in parts of Belgium has occurred, not only in little villages but in great cities. So the property loss at the eastern battle front has probably not been less than \$750,000,000 to \$1,000,000,000. One authority estimates a loss of \$500,000,000 worth of steel in the sinking of merchant ships and war vessels and this

constitutes only a part of their total cost. One, therefore, can conceive the property loss of the war to date to have been four or five billions of dollars. Judge E. A. Gary, chairman of the United States Steel Corporation, believes this loss in eighteen months of war will be \$35,000,000,000.

#### INDUSTRIAL AND TRADE LOSSES

Next comes the item of loss of trade. Insofar as this is trade with other countries the changes of the past eight months are matters of official record. It is known, for instance, that the combined decrease of British exports and imports from August 1 to March 31 was \$1,000,000,000. The loss to French foreign trade in the same period was approximately \$850,000,000. In normal times the business which Germany does with foreign countries about equals that of Great Britain. No figures are available of her trade loss, but with her ships interned it may be assumed that the total of her exports and imports has decreased fully twice as much as that of her rival. In the first four months of the war Russian exports fell off nearly 90 per cent. and imports 75 per cent., which amounts to complete collapse.

Yves Guyot, the best-known and most widely quoted of the French economists, at the end of the first six months of the war, presented the staggering figure of \$8,500,000,000 as the loss to the fighting countries through suspension of industrial production. This figure, of course, would include the loss in foreign trade. In fact this would be the largest factor in it, for trade loss through a reduced domestic demand is not net loss but reflects to a great extent economies that go to offset the gross proceeds of trade. An American scholar, A. Guyot Cameron, impressed by the loss to literature of the great libraries of Belgium, France, and Poland, made an investigation and found that the reproductive cost alone of the books destroyed would be \$150,000,000. France lives by and from the tourist, as do Switzerland and Italy, and it is not too much to say that the loss of patronage revenue to these countries during a year of war would be \$400,000,000. This also is not net loss, as a very liberal proportion of the amount is contributed by Englishmen and Germans, whose economies in travel are a not inconsiderable item in the offsets to war's costs. Finally, comes the figure of depreciation of securities which, on the London Stock Exchange alone, in the eight days before it closed in July, amounted to \$3,000,000,000, which would be fully 75



per cent. of the depreciation for all listed bonds and shares in Europe.

The money value placed on life that has been lost or on bodies whose efficiency has been permanently reduced has also been calculated by Guyot. Early in February he reckoned this to be \$5,000,000,000. In this calculation he placed the economic value of an Englishman's life at \$4140; of a German at \$3380; of a Frenchman at \$2900; of a Russian at \$2000, and of an Austrian at \$2000. If we are to cast up in the toll of this war the last penny's value on a human life we will find that not the least of the increased cost of it over other wars is due to the higher appraisal of man's faculties.

#### ECONOMIES INDUCED BY THE WAR

So far in this discussion gross costs alone have been dealt with. They are the outstanding and visible effects. The ameliorations are mostly concealed; at least they do not obtrude, although they reflect the greatest sadness and the sharpest pangs that war brings to those who are left behind. Fully 25 per cent. of the operating cost of war is covered by the economies which war induces even far beyond the battle zones. Domestic economy is even greater than this. The economy that grows from a higher industrial efficiency, such as that of the artisan, under pressure of competition and a national crisis, compares favorably with that of the housewife. Money that normally went into luxuries or non-essentials, goes into savings banks. Poor as it seemed they must be after the destruction of their crops, the peasants of northern France were liberal buyers last winter of National Defense bonds. Russian peasants have saved more since vodka was abolished than ever before, while making most generous contributions to charities promoted by the war. The savings-bank deposits in Germany have been steadily increasing since last August. The ability to exist on a little will mean a tremendous saving for all Europe for many years after the war is over, while the secrets of food values, which scientists will uncover, will contribute enormously to the health and wealth of all nations.

Europe has been spending on her armies and navies each year for maintenance and armament close to \$1,500,000,000. This must be subtracted from the operating cost of the war and if peace is concluded on terms involving disarmament the saving in annual expenditure for new ships and increased armies will easily pay the service of the debt incurred by the war.

#### THE WAR PROGRESSIVELY COSTLY

The German notion was that war would end within sixty days after troops crossed the Belgian border, or at the maximum, within ninety days. French economists in the autumn of last year were reckoning on peace by March 1. Nearly all of their calculations as to the staying power of Europe in a war so destructive to life and property as this one has been were based on a six- or seven-months' engagement. The struggle has already lasted eight months, and as we have seen, has cost as much as all of the wars since 1793. It is progressively expensive, too. In the first five months its daily cost to England was about \$5,000,000. Since then it has been averaging between \$8,000,000 and \$9,000,000 a day, and after April 1 it will cost Great Britain \$10,000,000 every twenty-four hours. The cost to France, at first \$7,000,000 a day, and then only about \$5,000,000, is now returning to its maximum as the enrollment in the armies increases and the cost of supplies goes up. Russian expenditures are constantly rising and will be much larger in the spring than they were in the autumn or winter. Germany has probably touched the high point in her daily costs, which reflected in the maximum of the mobilization period and the occupation of Belgium when efficiency was generously purchased from gold in hand. Large as the first war loan was, however, doubling at one stroke of the pen Germany's national debt, it was exhausted before the end of 1914 and a deficit of over \$300,000,000 had been created. To absorb the deficit and to cover the costs of the second half of the year the Empire voted on February 27 \$2,510,500,000 for "extraordinary expenditures."

These colossal budgets have not yet been rejected or disputed by the people whose children and whose children's children will have to carry the burden of them. Carte blanche is given the war administrations in London, Paris, and Berlin to meet the daily bills from the firing-line. Exhaustion through economic pressure is not yet apparent. In fact, there is no sign to-day of a break anywhere owing to lack of money, men, or materials. The present cost of \$25,000,000,000 may double or treble before the end comes, for abundant resources appear to be at the disposal of the men directing affairs. It is my profound belief that the last factor to enter into a conclusion of the struggle, daily becoming more bitter, will be that of the rising bill of accounts of any one of the participants.

# THE WAR LEADERS OF FRANCE

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON

[Outside of France comparatively little has been published concerning the French army and the French generals. The policy of the government has not favored publicity in any form. A correspondent recently found it necessary to remind his readers that, of the 500 miles that make up the Western fighting front, 450 are held by the French, and only the remaining 50 by the British and Belgians. This had been the situation for months, and yet it was doubtless news to many American readers. Some of the elements of this powerful organization, as well as the personal and human traits of the organizers, are revealed in the following article.—THE EDITOR.]

**I**T is singularly fortunate for France, and for Europe, that, in this hour of danger, such a magnificent brood of Frenchmen have appeared to guide her destinies, men like President Poincaré, Millerand, the Minister of War, Briand, who holds the scales of Justice; Clemenceau, whose clear and critical spirit has done so much to reveal the moral issues of the war, and General Joffre, who has already won one of the decisive battles of the world.

If we had been told, a year ago, that France possessed an army and a leader who, though unexpectedly attacked, could meet, check, and hurl back from before the gates of Paris the picked armies of France's historic enemy, whose preparations were completed and who had chosen the hour of the attack, we should hardly have believed it. Yet

this is just what General Joffre and his army have done, and the months of steady pressure upon the foe which the armies of the Allies have exercised since the Battle of the Marne, sufficiently show that that great victory was no result of chance, but was one of the logical fruits of the excellence of the armies of France, of the moral health and strength of the French nation.

## GENERAL JOFFRE

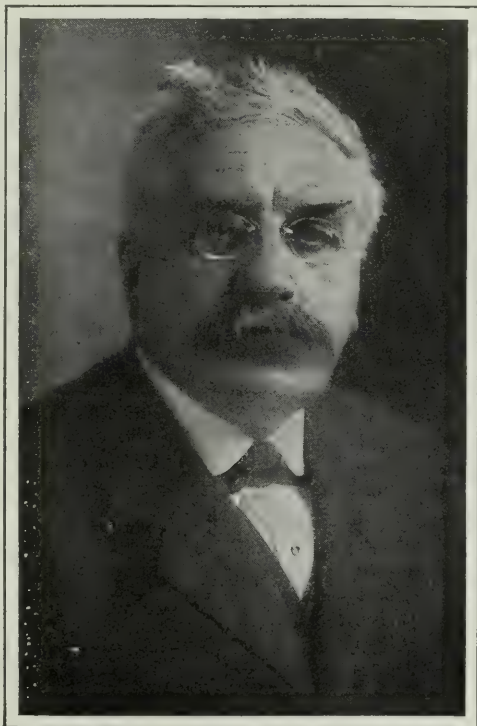
The life of General Joffre shows, step by step, the growth of the greater France, and how that growth was founded in sacrifice.

Born on January 12, 1852, at Rivesaltes, in Southern France, where the Pyrenees jut out into the Mediterranean, Joseph Joffre's boyhood and youth correspond with the showy, noisy incapacity of the Second Empire. It may well be that the realization of that incapacity, and the ruin which it brought upon France, drove into Joffre the qualities of reticence and reserve which won him the title of The Silent,—a silence covering immense effectiveness.

He was in his second year at the École Polytechnique when the war broke out in the summer of 1870, and at once volunteered for service. He was attached

to one of the batteries defending Paris, as a Second Lieutenant, and fought through the siege, sharing the humiliation and grief of the fall of Paris, and the painful period of ransom and reconstruction.

It is necessary to pass rapidly over the incidents in young Joffre's subsequent military career. Most of these have been sufficiently elaborated in articles that have appeared since



Photograph by Bain News Service

ALEXANDRE MILLERAND, THE GREAT WAR MINISTER OF FRANCE



the beginning of the present war. Working on the new defenses of Paris during the early seventies, Joffre attracted the notice of President MacMahon and became a Captain at twenty-four. Later he was stationed at Pontarlier, on the crest of the Jura Mountains overlooking Switzerland, and thence was transferred to Montpellier, on the Mediterranean. Sent to the Far East to work out a scheme of defense along the Tonkin-Chinese frontier, Joffre was found to be of more use on the firing-line and fought to so good purpose that in 1887 he received the Cross of the Legion of Honor.

Recalled to France, Joffre had a few years of humdrum staff work and became Professor of Fortification at Fontainebleau, but was soon ordered to the Sudan for the advance against Timbaktu. Returning to the War Office as Secretary of the Commission on Military and Naval Inventions, when France acquired Madagascar, of which General Gallieni became Resident-General, Joffre was chosen to fortify a naval base established at Diego Suarez, the northernmost point of the island. In 1901 Joffre reached the rank of Brigadier-General, and three years later was made Director of Engineering at the War Office. He attained the rank of General of Division in 1905, at the age of fifty-three.

In 1909 General Joffre became Corps Commander of the Second Army Corps, stationed at Amiens, thus completing his practical experience in the handling of large bodies of troops. He had now served at home and in the colonies, with the engineers, the artillery, and the infantry, at the War Office, and in the great garrison cities, in peace and in war, showing himself a master of the science and art of fighting, and his all-round excellence had raised him to membership of the Supreme Council of War, the small cabinet of generals who, under the War Minister, rule the destinies of the armies of France.

At this time was agitated the question of the supreme command of the French armies in the field. M. Berteaux, War Minister under M. Monis, worked out a scheme for a single head of the army, with unlimited power, but it was hotly opposed, as a measure of militarism, in the Chamber. The fall of an aeroplane killed M. Berteaux and dangerously wounded the Prime Minister, whose cabinet went to pieces in the early summer of 1911.

M. Caillaux formed a ministry, with M. Messimy at the War Office, and the question of a single head of the French army

was revived. M. Messimy worked out an excellent plan, and then set himself to find the man to fill the place. The choice was practically limited to the members of the Supreme Council of War, and General Pau was the favorite, with General Gallieni as a good second. But General Pau, perhaps because he was due to retire in 1913, refused, and M. Messimy, it is said by the strong recommendation of General Pau, chose General Joffre as Chief of the General Staff,—a position which would automatically change into that of Generalissimo, or Commander-in-Chief of the Armies of France, should the country go to war.

Six months later Raymond Poincaré, the present President of the Republic, formed a ministry, with Alexandre Millerand as War Minister, thus bringing together the two chief figures in the militant France of today. The question of the Three-Years Law, which would give the French army a three-years' instead of a two-years' training, was then raised, at the instance, it is said, of General Joffre, but certainly with his strong support, and, though this proposal did not become law until the summer of 1913, it is certain that M. Millerand's support did much to pass it.

Besides being Chief of the General Staff, General Joffre held the position of President of the Staff Committee on Military Supplies, President of the Committee of Military Archives, and President of the Staff Geographical Committee, thus having in his hands the material equipment of the army and the study of its future battlefields.

We have thus brought General Joffre's history up to the eve of the Great War. What he has done since is matter of universal knowledge. The greatness of his personality, the skill of his "clairvoyant strategy,"—to quote President Poincaré's happy phrase,—the splendid courage and tenacity with which he has opposed and driven back the enemies of his country, are now known to all. Yet years must pass before we shall fully recognize the debt that humanity owes to this superb defender of liberty.

### MILLERAND, MINISTER OF WAR

It is curious that Alexandre Millerand, the greatest War Minister that France has had in a generation, is, like Georges Clemenceau and Aristide Briand, a reconstructed Socialist, which shows the inherent power of growth and ripeness in the French character.

M. Millerand celebrated his fifty-sixth birthday on February 10. He is a Parisian

by birth, and early gained distinction as a lawyer,—defender of strikers,—and as a writer, contributing to Clemenceau's journal, *La Justice*. In 1885 he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, as a Radical Socialist, and for years he led the extreme left wing of the army of reform.

But we shall greatly mistake Millerand and the France to which he belongs if we think of him as a pacifist and internationalist. He made this clear as early as 1893, when, speaking at a Socialist banquet, he said that for three-and-twenty years (since the war of 1870) France had stood alert, rifle in hand, not knowing when the caprice of one of her crowned neighbors might call her sons to the frontier. In such a situation, he declared, it was an imperious duty for all Socialists, in spite of their private feelings, to accept the double burden of universal military service and the heavy war-budget. Again and again he has eloquently emphasized the precept that military service and loyalty to France were the highest duties of every citizen.

In 1900 Millerand held office under Waldeck-Rousseau, and in 1910 he was again in power, but his real work began in 1912, when he took the portfolio of war under Raymond Poincaré.

Coming to the War Office in the rue Saint Dominique, Alexandre Millerand set himself systematically to revive the military spirit of France, to make the army worthy of the nation's pride and admiration. He insisted that the first duty of a War Minister was to act as if at any moment peace might be disturbed. His watchword was "We must foresee the worst."

Speaking on June 18, 1912, he declared that preparation for war was the aim that the War Minister must hold ceaselessly before his eyes; all his efforts must tend to the result that, at every hour, the army should

be ready to pass, without disturbance and without shock, from a peace footing to a war footing.

M. Millerand formed the habit of bringing the heads of departments at the War Office together in weekly conferences, over which he presided with authority, listening with silent attention to the different opinions expressed around him, and then striking out from them the heart of the matter. Needless to say that at these weekly conferences General Joffre had a great and vitally important influence.

M. Millerand courageously affirmed the policy of giving a more martial color to the soldier's life, and to this end he revived the bugle-calls and drum-beats in barracks, and increased the number of parades and reviews. The army showed itself to the nation and felt the nation's trust. It was the reawakening of the national spirit. And, on the technical side, he utilized the progress of science,

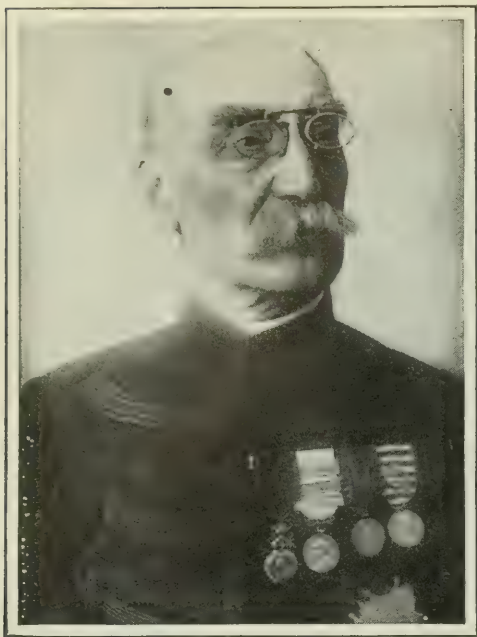


Photograph by Paul Thompson

### THREE GREAT FRENCH MILITARY LEADERS

(General Joffre (in the center), with General Castelnau, on the left of the picture, and General Pau on the right)





Photograph by Paul Thompson

GENERAL JOSEPH GALLIENI, VETERAN OF THE  
SUDAN, CHINA AND MADAGASCAR

automobiles, telephones, electricity, and all the rest, as being especially valuable for war. Again, he drove politics out of the army. He re-established the common mess for junior officers, as a school of comradeship and corps feeling. He brought together the officers coming from the military colleges and the officers rising from the ranks. He instituted technical inspection of engineering and artillery. He arranged temporary exchanges between the home and colonial armies. He had large numbers of aeroplanes constructed. And, what has proved of vital value, he drew up regulations providing for the forced retirement of incompetent generals,—the regulations which General Joffre has so wisely put in force, both before and since the beginning of the war.

After twelve months, Millerand left the War Office, to return, however, on August 27, 1914, when M. Viviani reorganized and strengthened his Cabinet. So once more Joffre and Millerand are co-operating for the freedom and honor of France.

### GENERAL GALLIENI

When the invaders were rushing wildly towards Paris, and it seemed that a second siege was imminent, General Gallieni was chosen as the man best fitted to be Military Governor of Paris, and the splendid courage

and poise of the City of Light, in that hour of danger, reflected the wise and effective valor of General Gallieni.

General Gallieni is three years older than General Joffre, and comes, like him, from the south of France, close to the Pyrenees. He had his military training at Saint Cyr, and served through the Franco-Prussian war; then, for more than thirty years, he had the kind of training which we think of as characteristically English: hunting and exploring in Africa, fighting in the Far East, organizing and governing great territories inhabited by non-European races. And, once more like the English proconsuls, he has written an admirable series of books describing his work and his dreams in these many-colored lands.

In the Sudan in 1880-1881, and again in 1886-1888; we hear of him next in the Far East, where France rules a quarter of a million square miles of rich and historically interesting territory. In one of his books, he tells us that, on February 18, 1896, he left his ship at Marseilles, having just completed a long and arduous campaign in Tonkin. During four consecutive years, the Governors of France's great Oriental colony had entrusted to him the mission of guarding the northern boundaries of the colony, and organizing large new territories. The achievement of this rough but interesting work resulted in the total disappearance of the pirates who had infested these regions for two centuries, and M. Gallieni also succeeded in establishing the most friendly relations with the mandarins of southern China, notably with Marshal Su, thus opening the way for the building of the colonial railroad. Further, M. Gallieni had a chance to develop administrative ideas which he had first applied in the Sudan, and which he was later to introduce, with excellent results, in Madagascar. After four years thus passed in active service, he was looking forward with lively satisfaction to the prospect of a long furlough in the bosom of his family, at Saint Raphael, on the Azure Coast, between Marseilles and Nice; but the higher powers ruled otherwise, and General Gallieni was asked to go out to Madagascar.

In his well-written and superbly illustrated book, "Nine Years of Madagascar," General Gallieni tells the story of his work there, and enumerates the steps by which he changed anarchy into order, and added to his country a well-ordered and very rich region of a quarter of a million square miles. We may compare his work there with the work of

Lord Cromer in Egypt, except that France from the first exercised full sovereignty over her great African possession. In 1905, General Gallieni was relieved of his heavy work in Madagascar, and returned to France, to enjoy that coveted and long postponed furlough at Saint Raphael. But he was too active and too able to rest for long, and we soon find him in Paris, a distinguished member of the Supreme Council of War, Corresponding Member of the Academy of Sciences, Vice-President of the Geographical Society of Paris, and Honorary Member of half a dozen other learned societies at home and abroad. Personally, General Gallieni is extremely popular, whether as a man of letters or a sportsman; he speaks English, Italian, and German fluently, as well as several of the native idioms of Africa and the East, and his collections of curios from the Sudan, Tonkin, and Madagascar are deservedly famous.

### GENERAL PAU

Since the beginning of the war, General Pau has been in command of the operations in Alsace, fighting with brilliant tenacity towards the lost city of Strassburg, close to which he was wounded five-and-forty years ago. There is dramatic grandeur in the spectacle of this splendid veteran engaged once again, after nearly half a century, against the same foe, on the same battle-fields; fighting once again, and this time turning the defeats and sorrows of 1870 into the victories of to-day.

General Pau was born at Montélimar, on the Rhone, half-way between Lyons and Marseilles. He entered the military school at Saint Cyr in 1866 and got his commission as Second Lieutenant in 1869. When the war with Prussia broke out, in the summer of 1870, he was attached to the 78th Infantry, forming a part of Marshal MacMahon's army operating about Strassburg. At the battle of Froeschwiller in northern Alsace, on August 6, he was wounded by the explosion of a shell, which injured his left thigh and so mutilated his right arm that it had to be amputated.

As soon as his wound was fairly healed, he returned to the front, joining the army of the East under General Bresolles, but a relapse compelled him to retire to the hospital at Besançon. He received the rank of Captain during the war, and after the war his history is a record of fine service and steady promotion in the home army of France; for, unlike General Joffre and General Gallieni, he



Photograph by American Press Association

GENERAL PAUL M. C. G. PAU, THE BRILLIANT AND BELOVED VETERAN OF 1870

took no part at all in the colonial expansion of his country. Thus he held the rank of Adjutant-Major of the 120th Infantry at Peronne shortly after the war; in 1881, he was Major of the 77th Infantry at Angers; in 1887, he commanded a battalion at Limoges; in 1891, he had reached the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel and was stationed at Argentau; in 1893 he was Colonel commanding the 45th Infantry at Laon; two years later, he commanded the 54th Infantry at Compiègne. Then, in 1897, he reached the rank of Brigadier-General, commanding the seventh brigade of the Second Army Corps at Soissons. Three years later, he commanded a division of the Seventh Army Corps at Bourg, and finally, in 1903, he attained the rank of General of Division, and, in 1907, became Corps Commander of the Sixteenth Army Corps at Montpellier. Later, he commanded the Twentieth Army Corps at Nancy, whence he went to Paris, in 1910, to serve as a member of the Supreme Council of War. No man knew better the army of France, and no General was more universally honored and beloved by the army than the one-armed veteran of Froeschwiller.

General Pau retired in 1913, having reached the age limit, but as soon as the war broke out last August, the old fire flamed out in him, and he sought and found active



service under his former colleague on the Supreme Council of War.

### GENERAL DE CASTELNAU

In 1896, Noël de Curières de Castelnau was Lieutenant-Colonel of the 37th Infantry regiment, gaining the rank of Colonel in 1900. By the end of 1909, he had reached the rank of General of Division, in command of the Thirteenth Infantry Division, which is a part of the Seventh Army Corps, located in the subdivisions of Langres and Besançon. Before the war broke out, he had so far made his mark that he was chosen a member of the Supreme Council of War, and First Assistant Chief of the General Staff of the Army.

General Castelnau's important part in the vigorous offensive in the direction of the Lost Provinces will be recalled. He headed the invasion of German Lorraine, south of Metz; and, in spite of two checks at Lizarde, he succeeded in taking the offensive, and, on August 18, occupied the line Delme-Morhange-Sarrebourg. The last of the Liège forts had fallen three days earlier, and on August 20, the Germans occupied Brussels. To the east of Metz, the army of the Crown Prince of Bavaria marched against the second French army under General de Castelnau, who, at the same time, saw his right flank threatened by General von Heeringen, while his left was endangered by a force issuing from the entrenched camp of Metz. Here began the general action of August 20. The French troops, attacked on three sides at once, were unable to advance; one French army corps unexpectedly gave way, and this compelled the withdrawal of the entire line. Sustained by reinforcements from Toul and from the south, General de Castelnau disputed the enemy's advance foot by foot, and definitely stopped it before Nancy, on September 7; but all the ground previously gained had to be given up, at least for the time.

### GENERAL SARRAIL

Meanwhile, the whole French army had withdrawn to the south, and the greater part of it stretched in a line roughly east and west, from the strong fortress of Verdun to Paris, facing the oncoming German armies. The third French army, that immediately to the left of General de Castelnau, was now commanded by General Sarrail, who faced northwards, with his back to the fortress of Verdun. Under the pressure of the German rush, General Sarrail's army bent like a hair-

pin around Verdun, yet held a firm and unbroken line, which effectively stopped the advance of the German center. The result was, that the German armies of the right, with General von Kluck at the extreme western end, pulled out the German line, like a piece of elastic which was tied at Verdun,—pulled so quickly and violently that the elastic broke. It was the recognition of this, almost certainly, that decided for General Joffre the moment when he must check his movement of withdrawal, and fight the great Battle of the Marne.

Maurice Sarrail began to come forth from the general ranks of the younger officers when, in 1887, with the rank of Captain, he was appointed to a post on the staff of the Seventeenth Army Corps, stationed at Toulouse. In 1900 he was attached to the staff of the military governor of Lyons, the headquarters of the Fourteenth Army Corps. In January, 1902, he was gazetted Lieutenant-Colonel of the 101st Infantry regiment. In 1910, he was appointed Director of Infantry, at the War Ministry, General Brun being at that time Minister of War. In March, 1911, General Sarrail reached the rank of General of Division, and in 1914 he was placed in command of the Eighth Army Corps, with headquarters at Bourges. This is the position which he held just before the outbreak of the war.

### GENERAL MAUNOURY

After the German retreat at the Battle of the Aisne General Joffre wrote to General Maunoury, "It is with lively emotion that I thank you for what you have done, for I owe it to you that I have gained that towards which all my efforts and all my energies have been directed for three-and-forty years,—retribution for 1870. Thanks to you, and honour to all the combatants of the Sixth Army." This was dated at Claye, September 10. It was, indeed, this killing blow on the right, delivered by General Maunoury, that forced the German army first to halt and then to retreat.

Michel Maunoury, who played this distinguished part in the great Aisne conflict, is somewhat older than the youthful Generals of Division whom General Joffre has been bringing to the front. He was born at the close of 1847, and entered the École Polytechnique in 1865, two classes ahead of Joffre. By 1897, he had risen to the rank of Colonel of the 11th Artillery regiment. In 1901, he was a Brigadier-General, with special work at the War Ministry. In 1910,



Photograph by American Press Association

GENERAL MAURICE SARRAIL  
(Commanding the Third Army,  
who held Verdun against the  
German advance on Paris)



Photograph by American Press Association

GENERAL MICHEL J. MAUNOURY  
(Commander of the Sixth  
Army at the Battle of the Aisne;  
recently wounded)



Photograph by American Press Association

GENERAL FERDINAND FOCH  
(Commanding the Seventh Army  
at the Marne and later the French  
Army of the North)

he commanded the 20th Army Corps, at Nancy, to which post he came from that of Commandant of Artillery of the Forts of Paris. He was also a Member of the Technical Committees on Artillery and Powders, and Director of the War College.

### GENERAL FOCH

General Foch's name will be chiefly associated in history with the next great period of the war,—what is called the Battle of Flanders. It was he who commanded the French forces which, coöperating with the heroic Belgians and the English, stopped the wild German rush towards Dunkirk and Calais; it was he who won the victories of Ypres and La Bassée, in conjunction with the same allies; and it is he who is even now pressing the German right, gradually driving the invaders back from the coast of the British Channel. General Foch, like General Joffre himself, is pre-eminently a scientific soldier, and his brilliant lectures at the French War College are still remembered. He was first Professor of Military History, Strategy, and Tactics; then, later, Commandant of the College, and at the same time a Member of the Technical Committee on Engineering. His book, "Combat," also characteristically shows the genius of the scientific soldier. One who knows General Foch, and who recently visited him at his headquarters in Flanders, thus describes him: "His refined, long, thin face and blue-gray

eyes express intelligence and will; he is tall, slim, and graceful, the embodiment of perfect simplicity and quiet authority. A Basque from the Pyrenees, educated at Metz, he has the nerves of supple steel of his race, and the calm will of Lorraine."

For some months, General Foch's army has been in the closest touch with the English under Sir John French. He was singularly fitted for this position by a friendship of several years' standing with England's Field Marshal. As head of the French Military Mission, which followed the English army manoeuvres three years ago, he got to know, and to appreciate, the qualities of the British army. As General in command of the Twentieth Army Corps at Nancy, he frequently received the visits of British staff officers.

General Foch, like Joffre, is quietly confident of victory, and his troops fully share his confidence. Ferdinand Foch was gazetted Captain in 1878. In 1895, he was appointed to a minor position on the Staff of the Army. In 1898, with the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, he became professor of Military History, Strategy, and Tactics, at the War College. In 1905, he commanded a regiment of Artillery, the 35th. In 1910, he was Commandant of the War College, and Member of the Technical Committee on Engineering. Gazetted General of Division in September, 1911, he commanded the 20th Army Corps, stationed at Nancy, facing the great German fortress of Metz.



# COLLECTING ART EXHIBITS IN WAR-RIDDEN EUROPE

SOME EXPERIENCES OF A SPECIAL REPRESENTATIVE OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

THE United States Navy auxiliary ship *Jason*, which went to Europe during the Christmas season laden with gifts from America to children in the countries at war, made the homeward voyage last month bringing many beautiful works of art for Americans to see at the great San Francisco Fair.

Mr. J. N. Laurvik, the well-known art critic, had returned several weeks in advance of the *Jason*, upon the successful completion of his efforts to obtain a satisfactory exhibit of European fine art. He had been sent as a special representative of the Exposition, to secure if possible individual loans from those countries which were not participating officially,—his search taking him into Austria, Hungary, Italy, and the Scandinavian countries.

Obtaining art loans in a foreign country is seldom an easy task, yet the manner and means of accomplishment are not ordinarily of general interest. But under conditions of world-wide war the work is a hundred times more difficult, and the chance of success proportionately less. Then, however, the element of human interest increases, and the simple story of the experiences of the collector may indeed be fascinating.

Mr. Laurvik frankly admits that could he have known in advance of the obstacles which were to confront him, he would have believed them insurmountable and would not have undertaken the task. But his journey is now over and there are more than a thousand art specimens at or nearing the Exposition which he personally gathered and which but for his efforts would not have been a part of the Fine Arts section of the Fair.

Mr. Laurvik's experiences have a wider appeal than merely to those who are interested in art itself. They are interesting also for their bearing on internal conditions in the countries at war, and particularly as illustrating the manner in which an important section of a great Exposition was built up under almost insurmountable difficulties.

Himself a Norwegian by birth, Mr. Laurvik was first selected by the Exposition authorities to go over to his native country. Sweden and Denmark were to participate officially, but Norway was not represented at all. In explaining the particular desire for specimens of Norwegian art, Mr. Laurvik lays emphasis on the fact that they are rarely seen in this country.

The greater part of the summer was spent in Norway. An industrial exhibit had previously been arranged, after months of discussion, but no provision had been made for art. Before anything else could be done it was necessary to arouse interest, and then to overcome financial doubts,—for the war had just begun and everyone, including the Government, was intent on saving each penny. But finally, the real work of collecting was started. The Director of the National Gallery consented to be chairman of a committee to direct the selection; and by September a complete and representative exhibit had been obtained consisting of more than 300 examples of the work of the best painters and graphic artists, including the conservatives and the ultra-radicals.

From Norway Mr. Laurvik went to Sweden and Denmark,—where art objects were to be a part of official exhibits,—and also ventured to go further and test the sentiment in Germany, Austria, and Hungary. He stayed in Berlin, Vienna, and Budapest long enough to learn that the artists were quite eager to be represented at the great American exposition, although they seriously doubted the possibility of either financing the proposition or of getting the exhibits safely over. Their governments were naturally too much occupied with the serious business of carrying on war to render financial assistance.

Returning to the United States in October, Mr. Laurvik reported to the Exposition authorities his success in Norway, and the possibility of obtaining art exhibits from Germany, Austria, and Hungary. It was de-

cided that the attempt ought to be made, remote as seemed the prospect of success. In four weeks Mr. Laurvik was off again on his quest, sailing this time on an Italian steamer for Genoa.

While passing through Italy, on his way to Austria, Mr. Laurvik seized upon opportunities for obtaining rare and interesting art objects which were in Italy but were not Italian, or were Italian but were not then in Italy. In Rome, for example, he secured from Albert Besnard (president of the French Academy there) some of his beautiful paintings made recently on the great rivers of India, and also obtained a remarkable collection of the work of the Norwegian sculptor Lerche, who has the unusual distinction of having modeled portraits of the last three Popes, although his work is absolutely unknown in America.

In Venice, it happened that an international exhibition had recently come to an end, but on account of the war the foreign exhibits were still unreturned. This was a great find, and there Mr. Laurvik obtained,—not without considerable argument and effort,—many interesting things. Among them were additional Norwegian and a few Hungarian pictures, and in particular more than fifty examples of the work of Axel Gallen-Kallela, who, although the foremost living artist of Finland, and widely known throughout Europe, is another foreign artist practically unknown in the United States.

While in Venice Mr. Laurvik paid a flying visit to the home of Marinetti, who is the leader of the Italian Futurists, although by profession a poet and journalist. There are about ten artists in his group, credited with being the "original Futurists." They had hitherto constantly refused to exhibit in America, but Marinetti was won over and a collection of about fifty specimens,—then on exhibition in London,—was pledged.

The coöperation and active assistance of Ambassador Thomas Nelson Page, at Rome, and of Mr. B. H. Carroll, Jr., the Ameri-

can consul in Venice, contributed materially to Mr. Laurvik's success.

After a month spent in Italy, Mr. Laurvik went on to Austria, arriving in Vienna toward the end of December. The Minister of Art and his councillors at first cordially received his suggestion of an exhibit, and agreed to call a conference of representatives of the various art societies. But rivalry and jealousy among these groups were so bitter that the whole project fell through.

Mr. Laurvik then began to work through individual artists, and obtained the coöperation of Kokoshka, whom he believes to be the greatest Austrian painter. Through him he succeeded in getting, from collectors, some fine specimens of Kokoshka's work.

It was also possible to obtain, after about a month's effort, a complete representation of Austrian graphic art,—the work of the foremost artists, etchers, and lithographers.

In Hungary the campaign started off fairly well, but soon aroused opposition on the part of prominent artists who conducted a virtual propaganda against it in the



MR. J. N. LAURVIK

(Through whose efforts a satisfactory exhibit of European fine art was obtained for the great Fair at San Francisco)

newspapers of Budapest. The Russian invasion was then most threatening, and the Hungarian artists argued that it was no time to think of making up an art exhibit for America. Besides, the things would be taken off the ship by the British, or the vessel might be blown up by a mine! This even though they knew that it had been arranged to have the exhibits for the Fair brought over on the *Jason*, the United States Navy ship which had gone to Europe to distribute Christmas gifts to the children of the warring nations. "Who can say," they asked, "that the United States itself may not then be at war with Great Britain, or even with us?"

But Mr. Laurvik succeeded in getting the friendly interest of Count Julius Andrássy, and made a patriotic appeal to him that here was an opportunity for Hungary to show that it can do something else than fight. Count



Andrassy saw the point, and offered anything desired from his own famous collection of Hungarian art. He agreed further to encourage the idea in his newspaper. This strong support turned the tide. Other collectors, one by one, followed suit, and after calling personally upon more than a hundred people Mr. Laurvik found at the end of five weeks that he had a complete exhibit. There were 460 objects, representing a hundred of the best artists.

Unfortunately, no time remained for an attempt to gather an exhibit in Germany. Not only was the Exposition at San Francisco soon to open, but the only practicable vehicle of shipment,—the *Jason*,—was about to leave on her return voyage to the United States.

Then began the task of getting the Hungarian exhibit to the *Jason*, due to arrive soon at Genoa. Innumerable details of transportation were carefully and precisely arranged, but although ample time was allowed for delays, the carload of art did not arrive

at Genoa until three days after the *Jason* had been scheduled to leave. Mr. Laurvik believes that the intense feeling among Italians against anything Austro-Hungarian was in some way responsible for a mysterious hold-up of the car, which had been attached to a passenger train. Fortunately, however, the *Jason* herself had been delayed in Greek waters, and had arrived in Genoa only a few hours before the art exhibits. The *Jason* left Genoa on January 29, went to Marseilles for the official French exhibit, and then to Plymouth for the English, leaving Bristol on February 26 for the return voyage across the Atlantic.

These European art objects are now about to be installed, along with exhibits from the rest of the world, in the Fine Arts Building at the great San Francisco Fair. There they will charm and instruct thousands of visitors, few among whom, however, will have even a remote idea of the great difficulties met and overcome by American energy and resourcefulness.

## THE END OF THE OPIUM QUESTION

BY HAMILTON WRIGHT

ON the recent anniversary of Lincoln's birthday the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands Government affixed his signature to a final protocol at the Dutch Foreign Office which gave effect to the International Opium Convention negotiated at The Hague during the winter of 1911-12 by the United States and the powers most closely concerned in the question.

The signature of the Netherlands Minister followed that of Dr. Henry van Dyke, the American Minister, on behalf of the United States and of Mr. Tang Tsing Fou on behalf of China.

### STOPPING THE WORLD'S TRADE IN OPIUM

The signatures of the three ministers put the International Opium Convention into force over a field which covers approximately 475,000,000 inhabitants: China, with an estimated population of 330,000,000; the United States 100,000,000, and the Netherlands and her dependencies with 45,000,000. Despite the war the signatures of the remaining nations of the world will doubtless soon

be added, and the convention will become operative from one end of the globe to the other.

The mitigation of this centuries-old abuse was summed up fitly by Dr. van Dyke on behalf of the United States, which in spite of rumors of war, revolutions in China, and even war itself has persisted in its efforts to bring to an end a long-standing social and economic evil.

The American Minister said, in referring to the convention:

The terrible fact that this enormous war is in progress should not make civilized nations ignore things which operate for the welfare of mankind. The opium convention aims at putting a stop to the vicious trade in opium as an intoxicant and at imposing the strictest regulation on the legitimate commerce in opium for purely medicinal purposes. I hope that the three nations which have taken the first definite step in this direction soon will be followed by many others.

It is a great satisfaction that China, which has suffered most from the opium vice, has taken this step side by side with the United States, which has been the foremost nation in adopting legislation against this vicious trade, and that Holland,

with her immense possessions in the East Indies, should take the same stand.

Little notice has been given to this truly significant event at The Hague; for the press is perforce engrossed with the horrors and acute complications of a stupendous war. Yet the act of the three ministers at The Hague not only brings to an end a chronic conflict but fixes by international law an unique method by which nations, if they will, may settle all contentious questions through the channels of peace.

#### GREAT GOVERNMENT REVENUES FROM THE TRAFFIC

To review the matter briefly: Eight years ago some ten nations were reaping a profit in governmental revenue of nearly \$100,000,000 per annum, from the production, manufacture and distribution of opium for smoking purposes. A vast international traffic had thus grown up in a degrading and demoralizing article of commerce.

India, deaf to China's protest, was filling her coffers yearly with not less than \$20,000,000, based on her exportation of opium to China. That nation, after protesting in vain for over one hundred years, had succumbed to the opium vice and was producing on her fairest acres nearly 20,000 tons of the drug, which in addition to the Indian import was debauching her people and giving her a revenue estimated at from \$30,000,000 to \$40,000,000 per annum.

The Far Eastern Colonies of Holland,—Java and Sumatra,—had become dependent upon an opium revenue which sustained their governments pending the development of their rubber industry.

French Indo-China, even under a very able administration, was subsisting to a large extent upon an opium revenue. Hong Kong and the Straits Settlements, the most flourishing of England's crown colonies, obtained a large proportion of their income from the farming out and manufacture of opium,—which enabled them to contribute a third of their annual revenue to the Imperial Defense Fund of the British Empire.

Siam was trembling lest she should lose her large and profitable opium income.

#### A MENACE TO AMERICA

The United States, furthermore, despite her loudly acclaimed moral standards, had since 1860 collected over \$27,000,000 in customs taxes on the importation of opium for smoking purposes prepared in the Portuguese

colony of Macao (China). This obnoxious form of the drug imported from Macao, not only kept that colony on its feet, but became a curse and menace to the United States—debauching our Chinese population and spreading through the criminal world to the refined precincts of society.

In fact, the opium vice seemed to have settled not only upon the peoples of the Far East but to be getting its subtle hold upon the Western world as well.

The steps by which this matter was brought to a final solution are too many to be followed in this sketch. The main fact is that the signing of the above-mentioned protocol at The Hague has brought to a close a phase of personal slavery morally as indefensible as the human bondage, the elimination of which nearly rent our continent in twain. And this achievement has been won by the methods of peace,—not by those of war. This great movement is well worth studying and must be classed among the most successful diplomatic accomplishments of the American Government.

#### THE INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION AT SHANGHAI

In the autumn of 1906 the attention of the United States was directed to the long-standing opium question, by the spread of the opium habit in the Philippine Islands, introduced there by the Chinese coolies. The entrance upon the scene of the United States encouraged the Chinese to make a further protest to the Indian Government. India being willing to reopen the question, the United States on behalf of her possessions and of humanity, approached all nations having any interest in the opium traffic; and a proposal was made that an International Commission be assembled to discuss the opium problem and to conclude upon some method by which it might be checked or brought to an end for the mutual advantage of all concerned.

The result was the assembling at Shanghai in February, 1909, of the International Opium Commission. At that meeting, under the leadership of the United States, the long-standing evil was studied from every viewpoint and suggestions offered for its ultimate solution. The conclusions of the commission were unanimous. Following upon its adjournment, the United States suggested that a conference be held at The Hague, composed of delegates having the full powers of their respective governments, to provide the method by which not only the traffic in



opium, but also in morphine and cocaine, should be brought to a definite end.

#### THE HAGUE CONFERENCES OF 1911, 1913, AND 1914

The first Hague conference on opium was assembled by the Dutch Government on December 1, 1911. After three months' sustained discussion all conflicting interests of the twelve nations engaged were brought into conformity and a convention was designed which not only provided for the ultimate elimination of the deplorable features of the opium traffic, but also of the growing traffics in morphine and cocaine. In addition there were laid down in the convention new principles of international commercial law which may be invoked for the stoppage of any obnoxious commodity in international commerce such as arms, ammunition, etc.

The International Opium Convention was signed on the 23d of January, 1912, by the plenipotentiaries of twelve powers which had aided in formulating it. Its terms are far-reaching, and embody, so far as international commerce is concerned, the best principles of American interstate commerce law. But the convention thus formulated was not to be ratified by the contracting powers until it had received, not the ordinary adhesion, but the direct signature of the other nations of the world by means of a protocol to be opened at The Hague.

An invitation for these signatures was immediately issued by the United States and the Netherlands: the former concerning itself particularly in securing the signatures of the Latin-American states.

By October, 1912, the American and Dutch Governments had respectively secured the signatures to the convention of all of the Latin-American states, except one, and all but ten of the European states. Thereupon the Netherlands Government, as provided in the final articles of the convention, summoned a second conference to meet at The Hague. It assembled there in July, 1913. That conference, composed of thirty-four nations, agreed, except in the cases of Great Britain and Germany, to ratify the convention immediately; and at the last moment the lagging Latin-American state not only signed the convention but agreed to its ratification. In addition to agreeing upon ratification of the convention, the second conference provided the necessary and somewhat unusual machinery by which the Netherlands Government was to secure the remaining European signatures and ratifications.

The latter was accomplished through the co-operation of the Dutch and the American governments, and in June, 1914, the former government summoned a third and last conference at The Hague, where the representatives of all of the Powers of the world, excepting Turkey and Serbia, solemnly agreed to put the International Opium Convention into effect as soon as the 31st of December, 1914.

In addition to this successful international movement for the settlement of a vexatious question, each government, under the pressure generated by the international movement, has proceeded to remodel its domestic legislation in accordance with the terms of the Shanghai Resolutions and the more exact terms of the International Opium Convention. The action of the United States has so far been the most radical. Five acts have been passed by the Congress and approved by the President which are far-reaching in their effect on our foreign and interstate commerce,—the most important as regards the domestic regulation of pernicious drugs which went into effect on March 1.

#### CHINA AND GREAT BRITAIN CONTRIBUTE

It should be a matter of world-wide satisfaction that China,—which for decades past has been reduced to a state of lamentable incompetency,—has, thanks to the diplomatic intervention of the United States, almost completely suppressed her internal production of opium and the baneful habit of smoking,—thus giving new life and energy to her people and permitting her to turn a fresh page in history.

Another pertinent event to be noted is that on May 7, 1913, Great Britain summarily brought the Indo-Chinese opium traffic to an end.

Yet, most important of all, one must say, there has been established a precedent by which any contentious question concerning one or more nations may be peacefully solved, if the nations so desire,—thus eliminating the horrors and destruction and sacrifice of war.

In the case under discussion few believed that the United States could solve the great problem on which it had ventured. This was due largely perhaps to lack of knowledge and lack of interest in a question which seemingly led us so far afield but nevertheless returned to our very doors. In fact, as is usually the case,—while we were clamoring to put our brother's house in order we suddenly found our own in appalling disorder.

# POPULAR LIFE INSURANCE

## I.—SUCCESSFUL SAVINGS-BANK LIFE INSURANCE IN MASSACHUSETTS

This is a matter of great and far-reaching significance to our wage-earning population, and I urge upon every employer of labor the importance of bringing to his employees a knowledge of the opportunities offered under this Massachusetts plan.—FROM GOVERNOR WALSH'S INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

**A**FTER the uncovering by the Armstrong Committee in New York of the flagrant abuses in the business of life insurance, and the great cost of insurance to those least able to pay for it, Louis D. Brandeis, in the March, 1907, issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, asked, "Why Not Savings-Bank Life Insurance for Wage Earners?" He pointed out that certain large insurance companies were conducting their business at an expense amounting to 40 per cent. of the yearly premiums (not including taxes), while savings banks, on the other hand, were managed at an expense of 0.23 per cent. of the average assets, or 1.36 per cent. of the year's deposits. Why could not this efficient and economical machinery of the savings banks be used for providing insurance at a greatly reduced cost? The Recess Insurance Committee of the Massachusetts legislature took this same view, and in June, 1907, the legislature of that State passed an act permitting savings banks to establish life-insurance departments.

Under the provisions of this act the Whitman Savings Bank opened its insurance department in June, 1908. One year after the inauguration of the plan, Mr. Brandeis reported to the editor of this magazine the Whitman Bank's first dividend of  $8\frac{1}{3}$  per cent. of a year's premiums. This year we have some interesting data from Miss Alice H. Grady, financial secretary of the Massachusetts Savings Insurance League, as to the progress made by this form of insurance. This progress is perhaps best and most briefly summed up by the statement that, in accordance with the operation of Section 21 of the Savings Bank Insurance act, whereby all the net profits must revert to the policy-holders, the Whitman Savings Bank has now announced a dividend scale apportioning to policies reaching their seventh anniversary during the current year, "regular and extra" dividends aggregating  $87\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of an entire year's premiums. Another bank,—

the People's Savings Bank of Brockton, the second to open an insurance department,—has also reached that point in its experience where all profits must be returned to the policy-holders, and is also this year announcing an extra dividend to all policy-holders. The two other banks in Massachusetts that issue insurance,—the Berkshire County Savings Bank, of Pittsfield, and the City Savings Bank, of Pittsfield,—are announcing "regular dividends" to their policy-holders on the same scale.

There are four insuring banks in Massachusetts. Twenty other savings banks and six trust companies have established public agencies for these four insuring banks, besides the more than two hundred agencies which have been established by employers for the benefit of their employees, who pay their premiums automatically through their pay envelopes. The limit of insurance on any one life was last month raised by the legislature from \$500 to \$1000. The same person, however, may carry this amount in each of the four insuring banks, thus securing a total insurance of \$4000.

The saving made by those participating in the Savings Bank Insurance plan, large as it is, represents, nevertheless, only a part of the benefits wrought by the Massachusetts system. Its influence on the private companies with which it competes has been most marked, inducing them to make reductions in premiums which have resulted in a saving to the wage-earners of the United States of at least twenty million dollars a year. The savings to the working people in Massachusetts alone have amounted to two million dollars annually.

Since the announcement of the first dividend of  $8\frac{1}{3}$  per cent. under this plan just five years ago, savings bank life insurance has grown in the confidence of the community. Each succeeding year has shown an increase in premium income, in dividends to policy-holders, in the surplus at the banks, in the



amount of the general insurance guaranty fund, and in the number of policies outstanding. The small but sizable army of policy-holders is growing, numbering at the present time 9700, and representing more than \$3,700,000 of insurance in force.

## II.—THE WISCONSIN LIFE FUND

**T**HUS far the only State in the Union that has gone into the life-insurance business is Wisconsin. A detailed account of the Wisconsin Life Fund, as it is called, was presented in this magazine in its issue for January, 1913. At that time the State Department of Insurance had just begun receiving applications for policies. The scheme has now been in operation over sixteen months, and it is possible to draw some deductions as to its workability.

As was stated in the article to which reference has been made, the State of Wisconsin is in no way liable for this fund beyond the amount of premium contributions from its policy-holders. These contributions are invested in Wisconsin farm mortgages by the Investment Board, composed of the State Treasurer, the Secretary of State, the Attorney-General, and the Commissioner of Insurance. The management is in the hands of the Commissioner of Insurance. No agents are employed to solicit business, but applications are received by mail or in person at the office of the Commissioner of Insurance from residents of the State. Thus there is an absolute saving of all commissions to agents, which, in the case of ordinary life insurance companies, are very large. Office rent and large office salaries are also saved.

The Life Fund has now outstanding 328 policies, insuring \$227,600, and on December 31 had assets amounting to \$13,074.49, held to meet a net level premium reserve on the basis of the American Experience 3 per cent. Table of \$9,684.40, which, after deducting the funds held for dividends apportioned to policy-holders and for other purposes, left a net surplus of \$1,976.78. The dividends being paid by the Fund range from \$3.84 to \$13.63 per \$1000 of insurance.

The standard policies issued by the Wisconsin Fund are similar to those of the "old line" companies, save that they are more specific and definite in the statement of what the policy-holder is to receive from the fund. A fixed premium is paid in each instance, and this premium provides a definite sum for expenses, a definite sum for the share of the death claims for the year, and another

definite sum to be put into the reserve. There is nothing mysterious about this reserve; it receives an annual increment from interest at 3 per cent. If the policy-holder dies, the reserve goes toward paying the claim; if he lives, it brings the policy to maturity. On a \$1000 twenty-year endowment policy the reserve at the end of twenty years is \$1000. The policy itself states these matters clearly.

Excepting for the smaller amount provided for expenses, the figures given on the Wisconsin Life Fund policies do not differ materially from those of any standard insurance company. It is contended, however, by Commissioner Ekern, that the Wisconsin State policy sets forth these figures more fully and plainly than does any insurance company. It is held that this form of publicity, having behind it the authority of the State government, is a direct and important aid to the cause of life insurance in general. One purpose in establishing this Wisconsin Life Fund was to increase public confidence in life insurance, to encourage the extension of life insurance protection to every resident of the State, and to increase the business of sound companies and societies. Once admit that life insurance is a desirable social principle, and it may well be maintained that the State government should do its part in promoting an understanding of insurance methods. Under a sound and wise administration like that which the Wisconsin Life Fund has had from its inception, there seems to be no good reason why the States should not engage in the business of life insurance, so long as the funds thus administered are made up exclusively of premiums contributed by policy-holders.

The Wisconsin Fund returns to its holders annual dividends beginning with the first year in the life of the policy. This, of course, could not be done except for saving in the expenses, saving the cost of insurance by the deaths being fewer than those provided for the mortality tables, and interest earned in excess of the 3 per cent. required for the reserve. These dividends may be used to pay premiums, may be withdrawn in cash, or may be left in the fund to draw interest at the net rate earned.

There are further provisions of the fund which are more liberal than those ordinarily included in the "old line" policy. Thus in the State Life Fund, if the policy-holder fails to pay his premium, the premium is merely charged against him as a loan, and the policy is kept in force as long as the loan and interest together do not exceed the reserve. Furthermore, the policy-holder may borrow the full amount of the reserve. The "old line" companies are under heavy expenses in soliciting insurance, and because of this they do not loan to the policy-holder until after two or three years.

### III.—A NEW WAGE-EARNER'S POLICY

NEW YORK STATE is not without some distinction in achieving a new step in life insurance for the people. Massachusetts and Wisconsin have directed their attention to cheapening insurance by having the State government or the savings banks issue policies. A new policy recently authorized by the insurance department of New York State seeks not only a saving of cost to the holder, but is directed against one of our greatest social problems,—the relief of the family plunged suddenly into destitution by the loss of its breadwinner.

It is a matter of record that two-thirds of the people who appeal for assistance to charitable institutions do so in the first year after such bereavement. This is the trying period of readjustment in the lives of many families. Assistance is sorely needed, particularly by those unaccustomed to doing the actual money-producing work, and who are brought suddenly against the problem of battling for a living. Where there is no insurance money at all to relieve immediate needs, the condition of the family is indeed pitiable. But these are not the only ones to suffer. Even where the husband or father has carried an insurance policy, too often little good accrues to the family by reason of it. For frequently the bereaved wife or mother, finding herself possessed of what for her is an unusually large sum of money, and unaccustomed to handling funds, becomes an easy prey to unscrupulous people. Foremost among such sharks is often the undertaker who manages to make the funeral expenses eat up the bulk of the insurance. Thus the family is doubly bereaved and thrown upon the charity of the community.

It is to prevent just such disasters that this New York State policy is designed. Under the contract terms of this policy there is a first payment of \$75 to cover the funeral expenses, and for one year afterward the family receives weekly payments of \$10, \$12.50, \$15, or \$17, as the case may be. This sum takes the place of the wages of

the family provider and gives his dependents an entire year's time to adjust themselves to their new conditions. It is also a part of the contract that this money cannot be diverted in any way from the beneficiary. In order to make the policy as cheap as possible, it is sold over the counter to applicants in person. This does away with the agents' commission, as in the Wisconsin and Massachusetts plans. The cost of such a policy is apt to vary slightly, as different companies have different ways of figuring their expenses, but the buying-over-the-counter plan cuts off the expense for insurance companies in securing this class of business. Other small details of the contract may vary with different companies, but the principle of the policy remains the same—the payment of a lump sum for funeral expenses, weekly payments to the family for a year, non-diversion of proceeds, and elimination of agency expenses.

The new policy is meeting with much favor. One large insurance company is already issuing it, and several others have it under consideration. As in Massachusetts, where a voluntary organization carries on the propaganda of education for savings bank life insurance, so the educational work for this new policy is carried on by an unpaid organization in New York,—the Gilder Policy Association,—with an advisory board of well-known and distinguished men. The policy is named after the late Richard Watson Gilder, poet, and editor of the *Century Magazine*, as a memorial to this public-spirited man. Employers especially are interested in the new policy, and many inquiries are coming from all over the country from large industrial corporations, who plan to recommend it to their employees. These concerns are supplied with literature to put into the pay envelopes of employees, and posters to hang up near the entrances of their establishments. As a prudent and effective form of protection for the family of the breadwinner, this new life-insurance policy seems bound to find rapidly increasing favor.



# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## WILL AMERICAN INDUSTRIES RISE TO THE OCCASION?

THE European war, in addition to its far-reaching material effects upon American industries, has had the fortunate result of focusing attention upon the normal position of the same industries in the economy of the world at large, and has thereby led to some more or less humiliating discoveries. The extent of our economic dependence upon the old world, and especially upon Germany, was hardly suspected before the present situation arose. Neither were the shortcomings of American industrial organization and methods realized save by the few persons who had made a careful study of the conditions prevailing abroad. What is perhaps worst of all, certain specious fallacies on these subjects have been widely accepted at their face value.

In a series of editorial articles entitled "Doing Without Europe" the *Scientific American* has recently presented a most searching analysis of American industrial conditions in their world-relations, not only as affected momentarily by the war, but also in their normal aspects, retrospective and prospective.

The first of these articles gives for reflection to such persons as have come to consider the iniquity of trusts and combines a *res judicata*. The writer shows clearly how trusts plus government coöperation made Germany the invincible competitor of other nations in the world's markets.

Even in the halcyon days of great combinations the United States was never so trust-ridden as Germany. At the present time there are more than one thousand trusts, "cartels" and syndicates, covering practically every line of business. Credits, prices, packing charges, sample shipments, these and many other things are regulated by cartels and conventions. The whole system smacks of the German army. It is organized efficiency pushed to the very limit. Needless to say, the German people relish these cartels, trusts, and syndicates no more than we relished our own combinations. But the German courts have viewed this crystallization of a nation's industry rather complacently on the whole, and the government assumes an attitude of encouragement,

particularly when the competition of a foreign nation is felt. On the other hand, public opinion counts for more with trust magnates in Germany than it does here. To be regarded as an oppressor is not a social distinction; to be looked up to as a successful man,—and success is measured in Germany by such titles as *Kommerzienrat*, or *Geheimrat*, or *Exzellenz*, and by other honors which the various kingdoms, duchies, and principalities would hardly dare bestow on a commercial Tiberius,—counts for more than millions. That is why greed is automatically restrained.

Germany owes her marvelous world-success in large measure to these permissive trusts. The great Westphalian Coal Syndicate, which controls practically the entire output of fuel in North Germany, has given English coal owners, struggling against one another for a bare existence, a taste of what a trust, backed by a government, can accomplish. . . . Similarly, the great Steel Syndicate of Germany has pushed English steel makers to the wall. It decides what is to be sold inland and on what terms, and it fixes the quantities and prices of steel to be exported. Tariffs enable its members to command the home market. Thus it is possible to export the entire German surplus production at less than cost and tax the German consumer for the loss. German common iron bars are delivered and sold in Birmingham at \$5 a ton less than it costs to produce them in Midland rolling mills. . . . We foresee the time when an international agreement must be arrived at by Germany and the United States in order that a code of commercial ethics may be framed, by the terms of which both Germans and Americans must abide. But until that millennium comes we must face the fact that the German trust exists, that it has the backing of its government, and that it has the power of dumping in any market which we seek to enter tons of goods which are not only normally cheap, but which are deliberately sold at less than our cost of manufacture until we are driven from the field. . . . We are not pleading here for a return to the old days when trusts held us in the hollow of their hands, but we are pleading for a judicious and controlled use of the economic advantages that accrue from production and distribution on a large scale.

The much-talked-of coal-tar-dye industry, of which Germany holds the monopoly, is one which could never have existed without the closest combination between producers,—so elaborate is its structure, and so delicate the economic adjustment of its component parts.

Next to the products of our land our mineral resources are our most valuable assets. But mines, unlike farms, must be developed by capitalists, and capitalists are not a class in high favor just now. Compared with the vast sums spent on agriculture by the Government, appropriations made to develop our mining industry are meager indeed. The Bureau of Mines, for example, spends approximately \$500,000 a year on research intended to improve mining methods,—exactly the sum which it costs the Department of Agriculture to print and bind its numerous publications. We waste \$1,000,000 a day, according to the last report of the Bureau of Mines, by poor mining and metallurgical methods. In the mining of 600,000,000 tons of coal during the last calendar year, there was wasted or was left under ground in unminable condition 300,000,000 tons of coal. As the result of a careful preliminary inquiry, the Bureau of Mines states that more than one half (200,000,000 tons of coal) of this yearly waste is preventable under existing economic conditions. . . . To discover more efficient methods of mining, to reduce this waste without seriously increasing the cost of the coal to the consumer, should be one object of scientific investigation which the Bureau of Mines should conduct. Small as the cost of the investigation would be, if compared with the importance of the end sought, Congress refuses to take any substantial interest in the inquiry. . . .

Mind you, this question of mining coal economically and efficiently has a direct bearing on the problem of becoming industrially independent of Europe. We are constantly reminded that European labor costs are lower than ours. But no one reminds us that our coal—the power that runs our factories—is cheaper than the cheapest European fuel. Thus we may offset a cheap item of European expense with a cheap item of American expense.

One mineral substance alone,—potash,—because it happens to be all-important in agriculture, has attracted the serious attention of Congress to the problem of its pro-

duction in the United States. But this substance, which we have been importing to the extent of about 635,000,000 pounds a year, is also vitally important in many manufacturing industries. Hence American manufacturers are anxiously watching the efforts now on foot to utilize the abundant stores of potash in our own rocks and in the vast kelp-beds of our coasts.

The development of industrial research in this country, strikingly sluggish in the past, has been stimulated under the conditions imposed by the war.

It is sad but true that American manufacturing companies, as a whole, are indifferent to the possibilities of industrial research. We find them lavishing enormous sums on wonderful mechanical equipment and fancying that good machinery is the beginning and end of manufacturing efficiency. It may be that the war will dispel this illusion and that the American manufacturer will take something like a Teutonic interest in the chemical and physical side of his own business. Only our very largest corporations realize the absolute necessity of maintaining well-equipped research laboratories to improve old manufacturing processes and to devise new ones. The Chicago packing industry, the cottonseed oil industry, the electric lamp industry, the powder industry grew to enormous proportions, not only because of the millions and millions invested by financiers, but because of the industrial research which they conducted.

The writer presents a long array of facts and figures, which we have not space to quote, showing the immense profits that accrued to our industries from scientific research, even when the special need for it, due to the suspension of scientifically conducted industries abroad, or to the restriction of their exports, did not exist.

## INDIA'S POLITICAL AND SOCIAL DISCONTENT

PARTICULARLY since the Sultan of Turkey, a few months ago, acting in his capacity as the spiritual head of Islam, gathered the faithful about him in a great and imposing mass-meeting in the court of one of the Mosques in Constantinople, and declared a "Holy War," calling upon Mohammedans everywhere to rally and harass the enemies of Turkey, there has been widespread speculation as to what was happening or what was going to happen in India. For India counts, among its vast and heterogeneous population of 315,000,000 souls, about 67,000,000 Mohammedans. It has not been hidden from the outside world that

for several years political and social discontent has been growing and spreading steadily, in some parts of India at least; and beyond any doubt Germany believed with unquestioning confidence that a Moslem "Holy War" would cause a colossal upheaval in India and so deal England a terrific blow.

However that may be, the present curious posture of events only makes of the conditions of unrest in India a still more interesting subject for study. And it happens that some valuable light on what those conditions were last year, before the outbreak of the war in Europe, is shed by a report just printed by the trustees of the Kahn Founda-



tion for the Foreign Travel of American Teachers,—a foundation established in 1911 by Albert Kahn, of Paris, for the beneficent purpose of giving each year a year of foreign travel to two American college professors. This report on "The Unrest in India" is that of Dr. Amos S. Hershey, professor of Political Science and International Law in Indiana University, who, in the course of his year's travels as the guest of the foundation, visited India in January, 1914.

Supplementing his own observations by talking with men in various walks of life, natives of many classes, British officials, missionaries from other lands, and by reading many recent books, pamphlets, and reports, Professor Hershey says that India was unquestionably in a state of widespread irritation and unrest,—that there were many evidences of political and social discontent with British rule. The irritation he ascribes not so much to defects of government as to the arrogant manners, want of sympathy, and spirit of exclusiveness displayed by the average British official and resident. According to the consensus of opinion, the British official, as a rule, is fair, honest, and impartial in administering the public business, and is inspired with the best intentions and a genuine desire for native betterment. But neither the official nor the business classes of English in the Far East have any sympathy whatsoever with the aspirations of native peoples for self-government, but regard them as of a vastly inferior race. The educated Hindus complain of social ostracism. It is the almost universal opinion of the white man in the Orient that a coolie or servant is all the better for an occasional kick or caning.

If one ventures to question an Englishman on the delicate subject of such methods of dealing with natives, one is surprised to learn that such actions are not, generally speaking, due to anger or irritation, but rather to deliberate policy based on accepted ideas of proper modes of control. The Englishman honestly believes that this is the best way to get results in the Orient. He will tell you that the Oriental can only be controlled through his fears, and that such treatment is necessary in order to preserve obedience and respect. If one suggests that such an attitude is neither Christian nor humane, he will likely shrug his shoulders and inveigh against soft sentimentalism, arm-chair critics, impractical visionaries, and unwise humanitarians at home who do not understand human nature or practical conditions in the Far East.

But if the *irritation* is largely due to the arrogance and unsympathetic attitude of the average Britisher, the *discontent* is the result of deeper and more fundamental causes.

Unquestionably, says Professor Hershey, the major portion of the political and social unrest of India is the product of a more or less systematic agitation or propaganda, conducted for at least a generation by native leaders educated on Western lines. The yearly Indian National Congresses, started in 1885, composed of about three thousand members, mostly lawyers, doctors, schoolmasters, journalists, and politicians, who represent various races and peoples speaking some four hundred languages and dialects, were confined at first mainly to the consideration of social and economic problems, such as the suppression of child marriage, the remarriage of widows, temperance and education; but in recent years the demand for a larger measure of self-government and other political reforms has pushed social questions more and more into the background. The situation began to assume serious aspects after the partition of Bengal by Lord Curzon in 1905. This highly unpopular measure led to opposition by various forms of physical violence. The movement was greatly intensified by the Russo-Japanese War which appears to have excited hopes of political enfranchisement among the masses in India. The Balkan wars also had their effect. But the maltreatment of Hindus in South Africa has been perhaps the greatest force operating to advance the revolutionary movement.

Professor Hershey notes, as have others, that this revolutionary movement coincides with a period of unprecedented prosperity.

How then may one account for the growing discontent pervading all classes in India in the face of this demonstrated increase in material prosperity and governmental efficiency? The English residents and officials unite in attributing it mainly to the political agitation carried on by about 300,000 natives educated on Western lines at Indian and European high schools, colleges, and universities. It is justly charged that this so-called higher education of the natives has been too abstract, literary, and academic, and that it tends to breed Utopians and visionaries rather than administrators and men of affairs. . . .

But the agitation is only in part inspired by truly progressive and democratic aims. . . .

One serious factor in the present situation is that the Moslem leaders, who until recently had held aloof from political agitation, have apparently united with the Hindus in demanding different political as well as social reforms. At the recent seventh annual meeting of the All-India Moslem League, founded in 1906, a resolution demanding the repeal of the Press Law of 1907 was unanimously adopted, and the Moslems joined in the Hindu demand for equality of rights throughout the British Empire.

An inquirer for specific grievances is surprised to learn that these are so few and often so trivial. One of the main grievances is the lack of a representative system and the absence of local self-government. Yet there are very few, if any, responsible Indian politicians who desire national independence or total severance from Great Britain. Even the extremists do not demand this. "Indeed," says Professor Hershey, "they are asking no more than we have freely granted in the Philippines."

He finds that beyond doubt the Hindus have one serious grievance against the British authorities in India, viz., their neglect of primary education.

The British Government maintains in India an army of 450,000 men, of whom 75,000 are British soldiers and 187,000 constitute a native Indian police force, at a cost of £20,000,000 per annum, or more than 40 per cent. of the net income of the government. Less than £2,000,000 are spent on education. Out of the 313,500,000 population, the census of 1911 returned 18,500,000 as literate, and 1,670,000 as literate in English. It is estimated that only about 1 in 10 males and 1 in 125 females can read and write. . . . The greatest Indian peril does not consist in the 300,000 literates or "semi-educated proletarians," but in the 300,000,000 illiterates or in the uneducated masses.

Credulous, ignorant, and superstitious, these millions furnish a fertile field for the activities of agitators, journalists, and politicians. Once these masses are alienated, India will be practically ungovernable. . . .

Clearly, the greatest task before Great Britain is the education of these masses along vocational as well as literary and scientific lines. . . . They must be prepared for the work of self-government,—an experiment which, sooner or later, they are bound to attempt, whether prepared or no. . . .

The appeal must be made to the Englishman at home. The British in India are too skeptical as to the native's capacity for self-improvement.

The leaven of Western ideas is working powerfully in India, especially since the Russo-Japanese War. Caste lines are dissolving and Christian missions are making considerable progress in elevating the Pariahs or outcasts. How long the present situation will last, no man can say, but Professor Hershey predicts that it will become worse rather than better. The present movement of Indian unrest is a part of the awakening of the East formerly experienced by the Japanese and now stirring the Chinese; and he thinks that "in India also may be witnessed the dawning of a new political consciousness, the birth pangs of a new nation."

## THE PRESENT PROSPECT OF CHINA

**N**OWHERE has the precarious position of China among the nations been more clearly set forth than by Dr. Gilbert Reid, in the *Open Court* (Chicago). Dr. Reid begins his article with the statement that there are two policies in dealing with the affairs of China which are mutually antagonistic, the one known as the "open door" policy, or that of equal opportunity, and the other that of domination by some one outside power. A third policy is also conceivable between the two already named, but more akin to the latter. That is, the policy of combination on the part of several nations to retard the advance of others and to gain the control of China.

The "open door" doctrine, promulgated by the United States, has been accepted by all the outside powers. There has been for many years little talk of the break-up of China, but insinuations have been made, from time to time, that one nation or another was plotting such a break-up. It has been contrary to the spirit of the American people and also inconsistent with the very idea of equal opportunity for helpfulness to China to use force for the carrying out of the "open

door" doctrine. Thus Dr. Reid assumes that if China is to have her integrity preserved, the United States alone cannot be relied upon to see that it is done. All the powers, on an equal basis and in an equal spirit, must work for its consummation. But, as Dr. Reid points out, equality of opportunity, equality of influence, and equality of helpfulness have no meaning when any one outside nation is dominant, or even predominant. "The only predominant influence in China should be China."

But what up to the present time has been the predominant influence in China, at least among outside nations? Dr. Reid maintains that it has been Great Britain. "Even when theorizing in her most persuasive tones for fair play and equality to all, she has unconsciously affected the predominant attitude. This war has brought much into the light of day. Woe to the man that thinks differently from an Englishman, whether such an one lives 'in merrie England' or out here in the foreign communities of the Far East! Down with the nation that is a rival of old England!"

War has been made not only on German





JAPAN,—WITH ENGLAND'S CONNIVANCE,—PLUNDERING CHINA OF HER RAILWAY PROPERTIES,—  
A GERMAN VIEW

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

militarism, but on German trade, German culture, German character. British business houses have not relished German competition, and even in educational matters German technical schools have caused some worry to English residents in China. Life in treaty ports has been predominantly English. "The average American coming to China, be he merchant or missionary, instinctively lines up with the British portion of the community. In times of crisis, as the present, when Britain's predominance throughout the world is put to the test, to venture an opinion other than that to which the predominant element has given its stamp, is anathema. A good

word for the Germans, even as they are in China, deserves martial law. Not to speak the good word for the English and their part in the drama does not merit martial law; a social boycott is sufficient."

Outside of Manchuria the greatest menace to Britain's dominance in China has come, of late, from Germany. Thus, as Dr. Reid sees it, the war has proved a veritable god-send to Great Britain since it has given her a chance to crush a dangerous rival and that chance has been eagerly seized.

By China herself, however, the eradication of this German rival is not looked upon as an unmixed blessing. China feared too great one-sidedness on the part of the other powers, and Germany afforded a kind of check on that tendency. Now, by the elimination of Germany, China finds herself in the hands of the five allies,—Great Britain, France, Russia, Japan, and Belgium. "Anything that a neutral nation, like America, can do to help China is realized as almost futile in the face of this combination. China thus views the future with feelings of trepidation. Both one-sided domination and dismemberment have heretofore been warded off by the presence of a strong and active competitor like Germany. For the future the question is, whether the old policy of the 'open door' can be maintained, with America's pious blessing, or whether the five remaining powers will again advocate between them China's dismemberment, or whether Japan will succeed in becoming dominant, as well as predominant, and treat big China as she has treated little Korea."

In any case, Dr. Reid declares that the predominance in China once held by Great Britain and threatened by Germany has now passed to Japan.

## THE COÖPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN RUSSIA

QUIETLY and almost without notice there has grown up in Russia within the last fifteen or twenty years a factor of immense significance,—coöperation,—writes Mr. E. Zhilkin in the *Vyestnik Yevropy* (Petrograd).

The considerable proportions of this new popular, country-wide movement were first clearly perceived at last year's All-Russian Coöperative Congress at Kiev. And so cheering and unexpected it was to see this rapidly developing movement, that many

workers at the congress became extremely enthusiastic.

Palpably exaggerated hopes were indulged, coöperation came into prominence, and the provincial press began to devote to it and to its rapid growth more and more space and attention. Thus the Yaroslav *Golos* called attention to the fact that in that province, in 1913, there were operating 69 credit associations with a capital of 94,649 rubles (a ruble is equivalent to fifty-one cents in United States currency).

During the year 1913 the association borrowed 294,654 rubles and received deposits amounting to 1,580,493 rubles. The net profits were 96,434 rubles. Loans were made amounting to 3,380,915 rubles, and agricultural implements and seeds were supplied on credit. On the first of January, 1914, the assets amounted to 143,914 rubles. On the first of January, 1914, there were 46,078 members with a credit of 4,871,459 rubles, as against 34,989 members with a credit of approximately 3,000,000 rubles on the first of January, 1913.

"In Siberia," Mr. Zhilkin says, "the growth of coöperative organizations has proceeded during recent years and is still proceeding at a great pace. Milk and butter-producing artéls [the Russian artél is a coöperative organization in which the members share profits] of Siberia have gained notoriety not only all over Russia, but have made themselves known abroad as well. Besides the exportation of butter to Moscow and Petrograd, the Siberian artéls have organized systematic export of their products to foreign markets, amounting to tens of millions of rubles yearly. . . . There are also being organized in Siberia various other coöperative undertakings. . . . The influence of coöperation in Siberia extends to the extreme East. The *Perm Zemstvo Weekly* notes with pleasure the following: 'The peasants of Zeisk County of Amur province are erecting an immense coöperative flour mill, with a capital of 1,000,000 rubles. Up to the present time there has already been subscribed by rural communities and individual peasants 400,000 rubles. In the village of Shkotov, Primorskaya province, there is being established a peasant coöperative store which is to sell agricultural implements, fishing tackle, and articles of prime necessity in rural life.'

"In some parts of Siberia coöperation brings almost a miraculous change into the local life. Not long ago a Siberian from Byisk told me that a village situated near their town, having united into an artél, utilized the power of a mountain stream, had put up a turbine for an immense flour mill and butter dairy, and above that furnished the streets and houses of the village with electric light. And this in a Siberian wilderness 500 versts from the railroad station and several thousand versts from central Russia!"

Speaking of one such coöperative society in the government of Vyatka, the writer says:

Not less energetic is this association in the

pursuit of cultural, educational aims, not only in the interests of its members, but of the whole local population. Beside subscribing for two agricultural journals, it appropriated 50 rubles toward the foundation of a collection of books dealing with questions of rural economy. Even from these fragmentary and few newspaper reports can be gathered how manifold is the activity of the coöperative organizations, how they attempt to satisfy the diverse needs of the population. Therefore it is but natural that the press has given much attention to this movement.

But the higher administration has also turned its attention to it, and this attention appears to be very strange and surprising. The Ministry of Education has issued a circular whereby public school teachers are forbidden to enter social organizations and unions. This circular of the Ministry put in a difficult position not only the teachers, but also those associations in which they took part. A large number of rural coöperative societies were thus deprived of their guiding spirits.

How this measure reflects upon the activity of the coöperative organizations is discussed at length by the *Yuzhny Krai* (Kharkov), which says:

For a long time the public-school teachers took almost no part in the social life of the village, did not come together, and had no possibility of discussing with the village folk the local public needs. The activity of the teacher was limited by the walls of the school. . . . But here a new movement was born in the village life, coöperation, which widens, grows, spreads to new villages, hamlets, attracts the attention of the peasants. At present, for example, there are in Kharkov government more than 200 credit associations with about 200,000 members, about 100 agricultural associations, more than 50 consumers' leagues, all of which have grown within the last five, seven years. Yearly there spring into existence in the villages scores of new, similar organizations.

It is well known to all how poor our village is with respect to cultured elements, and the new organizations urgently needed the immediate participation of local cultured forces, and to the public-school teachers was thus opened a direct way to the participation in the economic and agricultural life of the village. There are in the Kharkov government more than 4000 public-school teachers, male and female. Now you will not see in the whole government a single coöperative association in which rural teachers do not participate: some of them are simply members of the organizations, others are executive officers, accountants, lecturers. In general in the life of rural teachers their participation in the coöperative organizations has opened a new, interesting page, useful to both sides—the teachers and the people. And suddenly the Ministry of Education issues an astounding circular. It forbids school teachers to become members of any coöperative societies!

In conclusion Mr. Zhilkin says:

With the public-school teachers or without them, the development of coöperation will, evidently, follow its own course.



## BISMARCK'S CONCEPTION OF THE POWER OF THE STATE

IT is natural that in connection with the centenary of Bismarck's birth, even if the great war did not itself suggest a review of his policies, there should be a tendency to analyze those distinctive principles of statecraft for which the great chancellor stood in his lifetime.

The opening article of the *Philosophical Review* for March on "Ethics of States," by Professor James H. Tufts, of the University of Chicago, cites Bismarck's views regarding power as the chief object of the state on the ground that Bismarck embodied more abstractly than any other this political principle and more frankly described its nature.

The consolidation and organization of Germany, says this writer, was for Bismarck a supreme consideration "which sometimes called for war, sometimes for peace; sometimes for urging conquest upon a reluctant king, sometimes for a checking of that same king's desire for triumphal entry or for seizure of territory; sometimes for exciting public opinion through a revised telegram, again for bold resistance of a military party that would defend by striking first in order to catch the adversary unprepared."

Reference is made to a situation that arose during the siege of Paris when operations were delayed because of influences of a professedly humanitarian nature. Bismarck showed his disgust with those influences in the following words:

A decision, memorable in the world's history, of the secular struggle between the two neighboring peoples was at stake, and in danger of being ruined, through personal and predominantly female influences with no historical justification, influences which owed their efficacy, not to political considerations but to feelings which the terms humanity and civilization, imported to us from England, still rouse in German natures.

At an earlier date, however (1866), Bismarck admitted that he had been moved by a different set of considerations:

I had a political motive for avoiding, rather than bringing about, a triumphal entry into Vienna in the Napoleonic style. In positions such as ours were then, it is a political maxim after a victory not to inquire how much you can squeeze out of your opponent, but only to consider what is politically necessary.

Professor Tufts proceeds to adduce further

testimony of Bismarck regarding the tendency of both army and navy to react strongly to strengthen the national bent, since army and navy are the agencies maintained by governments to strengthen their own power and prestige. It is against all human nature, says Professor Tufts, that a man of ability should be content to devote his life to practising for a game of golf without ever playing it. We hardly need to be reminded that the man who deliberately plans to achieve by blood and iron the unity of Germany was not a mollicoddle or even a pacifist. Of von Moltke Bismarck says: "His love of combat and delight in battles were a great support to me in carrying out the policy I regarded as necessary in opposition to the intelligible and justifiable aversion in a most influential quarter."

There were occasions on which this professional zeal in the army and navy proved inconvenient. Referring to these, Bismarck says:

It is natural that in the staff of the army not only younger active officers, but likewise experienced strategists, should feel the need of turning to account the efficiency of the troops led by them, and their own capacity to lead, and of making them prominent in history. It would be a matter of regret if this effect of the military spirit did not exist in the army; the task of keeping its results within such limits as the nation's need of peace can justify is the duty of the political, not the military, heads of the state. That at the time of the Luxemburg question, during the crisis of 1875, invented by Gortchakoff and France, and even down to the more present times, the staff and its leaders have allowed themselves to be led astray and to endanger peace, lies in the very spirit of the institution, which I would not forego. It only becomes dangerous under a monarch whose policy lacks sense of proportion and power to resist one-sided and constitutionally unjustifiable influences.

The present war has shown very clearly how even the most aggressive nations find it expedient whenever possible to give their cause the appearance of self-defense. "Even victorious wars," said Bismarck, "cannot be justified unless they are forced upon one." "Success," he explained to Moltke, when revising the Ems telegram, "however, essentially depends upon the impression which the origination of the war makes upon us and others; it is important that we should be the party attacked."

## POST-BISMARCKIAN GERMANY

THE weakness of Germany's diplomacy, in the developments that led up to the great war, has been hardly less universally recognized than the perfection of her military arrangements or the tremendous power of her war machine. That this weakness was not an accident, that it was an inevitable result of the change that came over the character of German policy and statesmanship when William II. took the place of Bismarck as the guiding head of the state, is the central thesis of Professor Munroe Smith's illuminating article, "Military Strategy versus Diplomacy," in the *Political Science Quarterly*. But his discussion is so broad, his examination both of the historical facts and of the underlying principles so lucid and instructive, that far more is accomplished than the mere weighing of the merits and the shortcomings of a particular set of statesmen or diplomatists.

To Bismarck, above all other men, the world owes the creation of the German Empire, and with his name the phrase "blood and iron" is inseparably associated. But if he was an imperialist and a militarist, he was neither the one nor the other in the sense in which those terms apply to the ruling spirits of the Germany of William II. The contrast relates both to ends and to means,—to the objects which are to be regarded as the supreme aim of the state and to the elements which are to be reckoned with in the calculations of immediate policy. "Bismarck held," says Professor Smith, "that a state may rightly make war for the realization or defense of vital interests, but that it should not make war solely to increase its power, much less to augment or maintain its prestige." And in deciding whether and when to make war, he realized the enormous importance of "the imponderables,"—the good opinion of neutrals, the possibility of making or keeping allies, the advantage of an appearance (whether honestly obtained or not) of fighting against unprovoked aggression, in short all the human, the non-military factors. With the predominance of the professional military view, power and prestige have become the absorbing objects of desire, and strategic advantage the decisive,—almost the sole,—consideration in determining the question of peace or war. Both of these aspects of the difference between the Bismarckian and the post-Bismarckian policy are abundantly illustrated by Professor Smith; a few brief indications must here suffice:

Bismarck's success in establishing alliances and in averting the formation of any hostile coalition against Germany was due, in no small degree, to the spirit and temper in which he conducted Germany's diplomacy. He fully realized, not only the antagonism which new power arouses, but the dangers of new power to its possessor. They resemble, as he himself more than once indicated, the dangers of new wealth to the individual. . . . When his policy toward Russia was assailed in the German press as conciliatory to the point of subservience, his ironical answer was: "No farseeing reckoning with existing factors of European policy is to characterize German statecraft; its efforts are not to be directed to helping, as far as possible, to avoid wars of which the outcome would be incalculable; but Germany should assume, in Europe, an attitude of provocation and play the part of the man who, suddenly enriched and presuming on the dollars in his pocket, tries to trample over everybody."

Highly interesting, in connection with the foregoing, is the following, which, in its relation both to Russia and to Austria, has peculiar significance in the light of last year's history:

The one point in which German foreign policy changed immediately after Bismarck's retirement was in Germany's relations to Russia. In 1890 the reinsurance treaty with that power lapsed, by the expiration of the term for which it was concluded, and, although Russia was willing to renew it, the German imperial government decided to abandon it. Count Caprivi, Bismarck was informed, found Germany's treaty relations with Austria and Russia "too complicated." Bismarck admitted, with a certain malice, that "the maintenance of these relations of course required a considerable degree of diplomatic skill." . . . During the later years of his life he repeated his warnings against breaking with Russia and against identifying Germany's interests with those of Austria in the Balkans; and in his memoirs he wrote: "If the breach, or even the alienation, between us and Russia should seem irremediable, then Vienna would believe itself entitled to make greater claims upon the services of its German ally; first, in the extension of the *casus foederis*, which, up till now, according to the published text, goes no further than defense against a Russian attack upon Austria; secondly, in a request to substitute for the *casus foederis*, as now defined, the representation of Austrian interests in the Balkans and in the East. . . . It is not, however, the duty of the German Empire to lend its subjects, with their goods and their lives, for the realization of its neighbor's aspirations."

The contrast between the position of Germany to-day and that in which Bismarck left it in 1890 is impressively brought out by Professor Smith; and in nothing is that contrast more marked than in the completeness with which "on the face of the record Austria and Germany are the aggressors." The situation is reviewed in some detail; and



while the matter has become familiar in countless presentations, some of the points are presented in unusually concise and effective form in Professor Smith's paper:

Germany had given its ally "an entirely free hand" in its action against Serbia. Germany's efforts to maintain the peace of Europe, whether through its ordinary diplomatic service or through the direct appeals of the German Emperor to other sovereigns, were limited to trying to "localize" the conflict, that is, to trying to keep Austria's hands free against Serbia. . . .

If any one of the series of events which precipitated the European war can be regarded as decisive, it was the action of Germany in declaring war because Russia was mobilizing. In international theory and practice, however, mobilization is not generally regarded as cause for war. The proper answer to mobilization is mobilization. . . .

That Great Britain had other grounds for declaring war is not disputed. They are indicated in the correspondence published by the British Government, and they were frankly stated,—and put first,—by Sir Edward Grey in his speech in the House of Commons, August 3. If among its various grounds for declaring war, the British Government finally selected that which was formally the best and which would appeal most strongly to public sentiment in Great Britain and in other countries, it is not chargeable with insincerity or with hypocrisy. Any other course would have been unintelligent. . . .

If in the future, on the basis of evidence which we do not possess, the historian shall be able to show that in 1914 the Triple Entente brought about a European war in order to crush Germany and dismember Austria, he will still be forced to say that the conspiring governments played the diplomatic game according to Bismarckian traditions; and if he fails to attribute to Grey or to Sazonoff as high a degree of adroitness as Bismarck displayed, it will be because the ineptitude of their adversaries made their task easier than his.

"In the histories, biographies and memoirs of the Bismarckian period," says Professor Smith, "we read of conflicts between the Prussian Premier and German Chancellor on the one hand, and the military leaders, notably the chief of the General Staff, on the other. These are usually regarded as collisions of strong personalities, ascribable largely to competing personal ambitions. They mean more than this. They represent the natural and apparently necessary antithesis of the political and the military mind; and they typify the perpetual and universal struggle between diplomacy and military strategy." To the development of this thesis the last twenty pages of Professor Smith's paper are devoted. Among the most striking points brought out in support of it are those relating to Bismarck's views on the so-called inevitableness of war. Upon this issue, he more than once came into collision with Moltke:

"The personal conviction of a ruler or statesman," he declared upon one occasion, "however well founded, that war would eventually break out, could not justify its promotion. Unforeseen events might alter the situation and avert what seemed inevitable." No one, he said, when a similar conjuncture arose at a later period, "can look into the cards held by Providence." All of which contrasts sharply with the military point of view, thus expressed by Bernhardt:

When there are indications of an offensive alliance of stronger enemies who only await the favorable moment to strike, the moral duty of the state towards its citizens is to begin the struggle while the prospects of success and the political circumstances are still tolerably favorable.

Professor Smith's judgment upon the diplomacy of the Teutonic Allies is summarized as follows:

This study of the Austro-German diplomacy seems to lead to fairly definite conclusions. Military strategy, not diplomacy, decided that war was, if not desirable, at least inevitable; military strategy robbed diplomacy, not only of the time necessary to maneuver the adversaries into aggression, but even of opportunity to show a decent reluctance to engage in war; military strategy decided that the war must be carried at the outset through Belgium into France, leaving to diplomacy only the hopeless task of getting the German armies through Belgium into France without war with Great Britain. There are signs already that in the event of German defeat the diplomatists are to be made the scapegoats. That, however, will be unjust; for they really had no chance.

And the article closes with an analysis of the true nature and effect of "militarism":

What do we really mean when we assert that a state is militaristic? It is clear, I think, that a state is not necessarily militaristic because it is prepared for war. It is not necessarily militaristic because it holds all its able-bodied male citizens to military service, as is the case in Switzerland, nor because it holds them to three years of training, as is the case in France, nor because it has a powerful navy, as is the case with the United States. Nor is a state militaristic because it has a large body of military and naval officers whose duty it is to form plans for the conduct of war, and who are apt to regard war with other feelings than those of the normal civilian. A nation is militaristic just in so far as the views and feelings natural and almost necessary in its army and navy are shared by its civilians, especially by those who are able to direct national thought and to create national sentiment. In a nation, as in an individual, militarism is a state of mind. The more fully a national mind is militarized, the more difficult it becomes for the political heads of the state to subordinate military to political considerations. . . . I have spoken thus far only of the dangers which a nation incurs by permitting its diplomacy to be controlled by strategic considerations. There is, however, a far broader

aspect to the problem. Of all means which civilization has provided to avert war, negotiation is the most important. Direct negotiation may be and often is supplemented by the friendly offices of nations not immediately concerned and by offers of mediation; but these are but extensions of negotiation. Arbitration is a potent agency for the peaceful settlement of controversies, but arbitration cannot be set in motion without negotiation. For negotiation time is essential. In the interest

of the peace of the world, therefore, it is of the highest importance that the political heads of every state should be ever on their guard against the attempts of their military advisers to convince them that immediate attack is necessary. It is almost always declared to be a matter "of life or death." To the nation primarily concerned it is usually, in fact, only a matter of greater or less chance of initial success. To peace, however, it is always a matter of death.

## THE FOOD MONOPOLY IN GERMANY

THE stoppage of food supply to Germany has given rise to a measure known as the state food monopoly, now extended to many branches of industry so that we may almost speak of a state ownership. In *Der Tag* (Berlin) Mr. Leo Yolles defends and examines the different phases of these extraordinary measures. The writer insists that the state always has been misunderstood when it has taken a hand in practical economics. It was first felt as a shock when the seizure of provisions was ordered in Germany, the citizens naturally feeling that they were being shorn of their private ownership rights. However, these reflections soon disappeared when it became clear that the government was bent upon social reform on a large scale.

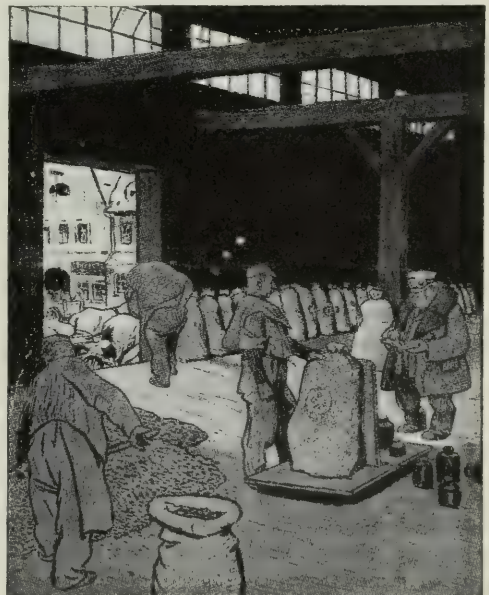
The state does not lay embargo on grain, flour, etc., for its own use. On the contrary, it assumes the by no means easy task of distributing the available supply so that nobody will suffer need of daily bread. The grain monopoly, moreover, distasteful as the name may sound, is, as a matter of fact, the most charitable institution that ever was organized.

Speaking of the grain monopoly, the writer emphasizes the fact that sufficient supply must be on hand, otherwise the procedure would be utopian. A quantity of four pounds of bread and flour is provided for each individual per week. Persons that can afford to procure other nourishment do not need four pounds. A baker will never manufacture just enough of his goods to cover the demand. There is always a certain surplus as there is a tendency to over-production in all manufacturing branches. If bakery products are reduced by one-fourth there will be a close relation between supply and demand.

For the control of the grain supply there is a central distribution plan of the states and the communities, or municipalities. The provisions remain in the possession of the owners, but can only be disposed of as the authorities see fit. According to the plan

adopted by the government, the municipalities, as independent organizations, are entrusted with the practical solution of the whole economic question. The most important part of the program is committed to them, which is not only a recognition of special relationship to the people, but is also the best technical solution. They must husband the quantities allotted by themselves. Scarcity will be out of the question, and the intention of the enemy to starve Germany has now already been thwarted. Only criminal resistance will evoke disturbance in the circulation of the food supply. Severe punishment will be meted out and the disposition to trifle with the law will be nipped in the bud.

Embargo was laid on all provisions found within the German Empire up to January 26.



THE GERMAN GRAIN SPECULATOR:

"If the maximum price had not been fixed and seizure enforced, we should have had a fine business year."

From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart)





TWO GREAT GRAIN MONOPOLIZERS

JOSEPH: "Bravo, Michel, bravo! I, too, once had a very successful corner in grain in my day."

From *Ulk* © (Berlin)

With the exception of any possible importation the monthly trading in grain and flour has been limited to half of that which was sold from January 1 to 15, 1915. These sales, however, must move within the limits laid out for the distribution.

The writer emphasizes the high idealistic spirit of these measures, in the face of which critics of a fundamentally different opinion should be silenced. Whoever feels himself restricted in personal liberties will subordinate these sentiments to his patriotic duty. Moreover, the gambler is the only one who will suffer, having been shorn in the hope of price speculations. Maximum prices are set down which will secure any trader in grain and flour a handsome profit. It will thus be seen that nobody is enjoined to sacrifice anything needlessly to the common welfare.

The state has also embarked on economies in the industrial field, chiefly for the saving of raw material. While the feeding of the civil population has been taken care of, there is also the need of the army. Present stocks of copper, nickel, tin, aluminum, antimony, and lead have been seized and the amount computed, though in this case there is not the fear of a shortage.

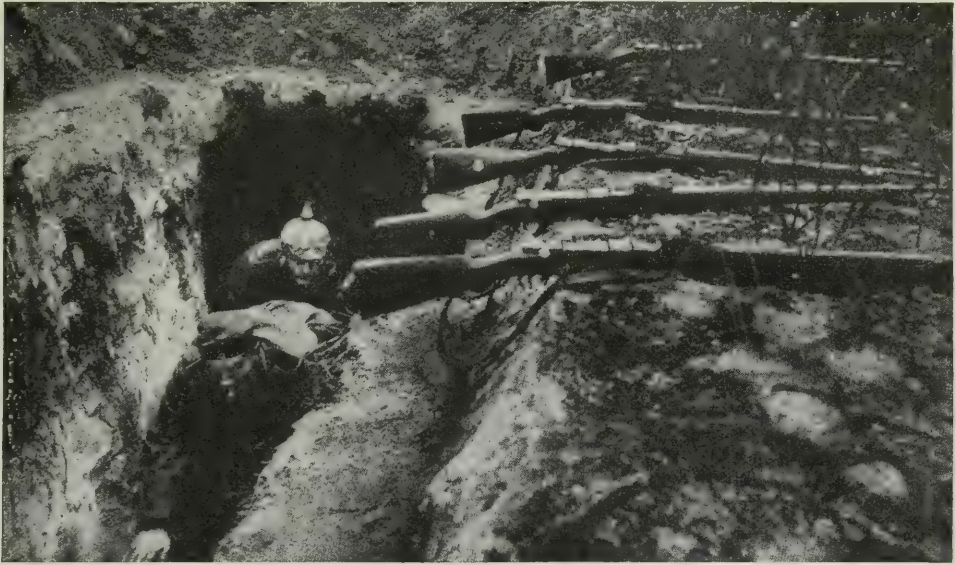
How the German food supply has been affected by the war we gather from a contribution to the *Berliner Neueste Nachrichten*, by Professor Schring, member of the

Diet. The annual importation of 10,000,000 tons of foodstuffs, feed, and fertilizing material at a value of two and a half milliards of marks (about \$560,000,000) has been entirely cut off. This is as much as ten sea-going vessels of 3000 tons each, or 100 railroad trains of thirty cars each could transport daily. In regard to potatoes, Germany is producing more than the United States,—sixteen times as large in area; more than Russia, or any other country. With a normal harvest Germany can produce nine-tenths of its grain consumption for bread, and making allowance for a too high estimate, eight-tenths. The average importation of vegetable foodstuffs amounts only to 6.20 marks (\$1.50) per head during the last six years. The maximum grain prices are not too high. Wheat is higher in London than in Berlin, notwithstanding that London is the center of the great oversea traffic. Rye is also used considerably for bread in Germany; it sells for 40 marks (\$10) less per ton than wheat, so that the people can live cheaper than in England. Professor Schring goes on to show some of the disadvantages accruing from the price regulations:

Many farmers and merchants, instead of selling the grain, preferred to use it for feeding the cattle. A wholesale market would have prevented the wholesale feeding, especially of rye and potatoes. The cattle were fed instead of slaughtered, and to the lasting disadvantage of man. The motive, however, was not from ill will. The small farmer has a heart for his stock and was not willing to dispose of it unless tempted by high prices. The official announcement that all bread now must contain a certain proportion of rice and potato flour has been more effective. The combination is eminently nutritious, though not quite so valuable a food product as bread made exclusively from wheat. Rice replaces wheat in food value very well and has a pleasant taste that does not pall readily, as potato bread of various kinds does. Rice, rye, and barley save wheat, however, and potato flour actually lessens the quantity of bread eaten because it is more filling. Bakers will also take an interest in heavier mixing with potato flour in order to be able to keep up the business after the decree to decrease the output to three-fourths.

The municipalities are also enjoined to lay in stock a certain amount of meat. The pigs of the farmers will be used to this end. Three-quarters of all pigs, or 16,000,000 animals, must be killed if the potato supply in Germany is to last until the next harvest. This wholesale slaughter will, however, take months, because there is a lack of butchers. In order to avoid a threatening shortage of potatoes it would, therefore, seem likely to raise the price of meat.

In conclusion, the writer emphasizes the tremendous reversals which production and commerce are undergoing.



GERMANS COMING INTO THE TRENCHES

## IN THE GERMAN TRENCHES

FORMER Senator Albert J. Beveridge has visited the German trenches in northern France and given a graphic account in *Collier's Weekly* of what he saw there.

The trenches themselves have been described by various writers and their general formation and appearance have been made somewhat familiar to American readers through photographs. Here are some of Senator Beveridge's observations on his first contact with trench life:

Through the trenches themselves you flounder, with mud or water or their slimy combination slushing far up about your legs. You stoop, under orders, every now and again when, walking over a caved-in lump of earth, your head if unbent is brought above the surface and in sight of the keen-eyed French sharpshooters. You pass the men who are doing the fighting. Here and there they have made benches or footholds, on which they stand, an inch or two above the trenches' slush. Apertures, perhaps six inches wide by two deep, made by pieces of wood, appear in the loose earth piled above the trench, looking toward the enemy. Through these the soldiers scan the opposing line, and through these they fire when an unwary or curious head comes into view, although most of the shooting is done with rifle resting on the top of the earth ridge of the trench. You look yourself and see the French trenches quite plainly with the naked eye; indeed, they are not a hundred yards away. A little farther on the hostile lines are only forty or fifty yards apart. A clump of trees crests a gentle elevation a short distance behind the French rifle line, and here French machine guns are in watchful hiding.

The rifle firing, sometimes only a *p!ot! p!ot!* and again so frequent that it is like scores of giant firecrackers exploded by a single fuse, seems only a few feet away from where you stand. Yet the soldiers by your side do no firing; no bullets whistle over you; no one near you is wounded or killed, and a curious feeling of unreality and play-acting steals over you. You have a most unworthy and brutal feeling that you are being cheated. You fervently hope that no one will be hit, no one wounded or killed. And yet, "Well, if somebody is sure to be shot in the trenches to-day, if this be fate's unchangeable decree, let it be now, when I can see, and not half an hour later, when I shall be gone"—so runs your almost subconscious thought.

But the kindly smiles, the good-humored faces, the expression of physical contentment which comes of being well fed and cared for! Once more your mental processes about-face from the clamor of hostilities toward this new viewpoint. You forget the dramatic phase and go to wondering about these brawny, cheerful-looking soldiers.

Little chambers or dens are dug in the earth of the trench's wall, always on the side toward the enemy. They are perhaps six feet long, four feet wide, three feet deep, the roof and sides kept from caving in by wooden supports. In every one of these firing-line bed chambers Senator Beveridge found a soldier fast asleep, fully clothed even to boots, overcoat, and cap. There are thick layers of clean, dry straw on the earthen floor and a flap of canvas or gunny-sack to darken the room and keep out the chilly air.



Senator Beveridge was interested in learning the routine of trench life, and this is what he found out:

Twenty-four hours in these *Schützengräben*, two hours watching and firing, four hours sleeping in the cubby-holes; then two hours of duty on foot again, and so on; then forty-eight hours of rest in buildings, if any are near by, or, if not, in the equally comfortable, big, semi-underground, roomy bunk places; then three days of real rest a little farther back, but still within quick call; then three more days in some comparatively distant yet neighboring village still farther in the rear, where the soldier alternates between enjoying himself and



MR. BEVERIDGE TALKING WITH A FRENCH PRISONER

plowing the fields if the French peasants are not already performing that task.

And then back to the trenches again, and the same routine of service and repose. And here is a problem for the psychologist burrowing his mole-like way into the hidden cause of human action and preference,—the men are anxious to get back from the safety and comfort of village life or cozy subterranean comradeship to the danger and discomfort of the fighting pit. You do not in the least understand this soldier choice, but you feel it vaguely yourself long before you are told it.

This substantiates much that has been claimed for the Germans' care of the common soldier.

## THE X-RAYS AS APPLIED IN THE WAR

THE great European conflict has with reason been defined as a technical war. While it is true that the great destruction wrought is due to technical perfection, it seems as if the only redeeming feature that has presented itself also consists in technical triumphs as applied to the sick and wounded. The demands which the war has put upon the X-ray process are not of a new nature, save in the necessity to apply it under great disadvantages and the most primitive circumstances. We owe to Dr. Reichenan, in the *Technische Rundschau* (Berlin), an outline of how "Roentgen" laboratories of a transportable nature are managed in the field, and an interesting description of the mysteries of the application of X-rays.

The value of a movable Roentgen laboratory was early recognized, and the well-known electrical works of Siemens & Halske had already built a so-called field Roentgen car,—another proof of the readiness of the German army to take the field. The outfit, housed in a wagon drawn by two horses, consists of a powerful gasoline motor coupled to a dynamo. The electric current, after passing the switch and regulation apparatus in the rear of the car, goes to the Wehmet

interrupter and the primary coil. The inductor, located to the left, generates the high-tension discharge which is led to the X-ray tube. The photographic plates, the transparent screen, and other utensils are kept in the front of the car. In many cases the gasoline motor is also used for the propulsion of the outfit when it goes under the name of the "Roentgen-auto."

The chief object of the X-ray process is the location of bone ruptures and the presence of foreign substances in the human body. The work of the X-ray expert is by no means at an end when it has been confirmed that a bullet or something else has penetrated into the body. The most laborious task is the exact determination of the missile,—in other words, its localization. The writer goes on to show how this is done.

The first X-ray plate clearly shows the shadow of the missile and the surrounding bones and organs. Finding, for instance, that a bullet is located in the neighborhood of the shoulder blade is, however, no reason why the two should be anatomically adjacent. The X-ray picture, to begin, is only the projection of all the different organs on a plane, to wit, the photographic plate. A missile located within the breast can, therefore, thanks to the diagonal X-rays, be projected about the

shoulder blade. In the vast majority of cases the location of foreign substances in the human body is effected by the method known as "depth measurement." The process is based on the geometrical consideration that two views of the missile will be imprinted on the photographic plate if two exposures are taken in succession in such a way that the X-ray tube is displaced a certain distance the second time. The lineal space between the two pictures on the same plate is the indirect measure of how far the foreign substance has penetrated into the body of the patient, who, of course, is resting on the plate for the purpose of being X-rayed. On the ground of mathematical calculations the Roentgen depth-measuring instrument has now been constructed as illustrated in Figure 2.



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X-RAY PHOTOGRAPH OF WOUNDED SOLDIER BEING TAKEN

The finding of the "depth," however, does not finally locate the missile. The position of a local body can only be determined by three components. The first, the "depth," indicates the plane parallel to the plate in which the foreign substance is to be found. Within this plane we need two other components which are obtained in the following manner.

On any part of the surface of the body surrounding the foreign substance we mark the so-called auxiliary point from whence in any direction the auxiliary line is drawn. A leaden cross, into one end of which a steel needle is stuck, is used to cover the auxiliary point while the needle

follows the line. A hole in the middle of the cross fixes it with reference to the point. The first photographic exposure is set with the central ray on the leaden cross, and before the second one takes place the loose steel needle is removed. In this way we get a local exposure. . . . The shadows are here seen double, which applies to the bone, the missile and the cross, but not to the needle shadow. The center of the first cross shadow is now connected with the center of the shadow of the missile, or, in case it is desired to measure the base and the point, with both. . . . The length of these connecting lines, as well as the angle which they include with the shadowed line of the steel needle, are measured, and the length of the line is multiplied with the so-called "lateral constant," indicated on the depth-measuring instrument, Figure 2. The resulting figure and the angle directly tell how many centimeters the missile is located from the auxiliary point in the direction indicated by the angle.

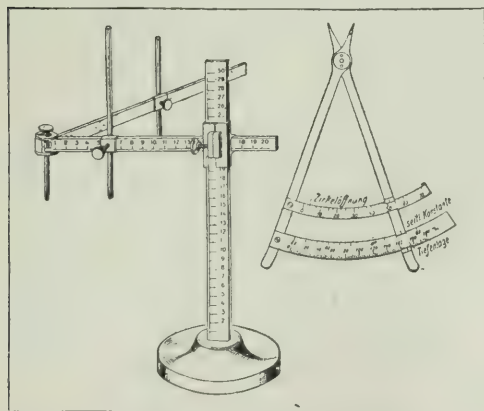


FIGURE 1—INDICATOR FOR LOCATING THE POINT ON THE SKIN UNDER WHICH THE MISSILE IS BURIED IN THE BODY

FIGURE 2—ROENTGEN DEPTH-MEASURING INSTRUMENT, THE USE OF WHICH IS EXPLAINED ON THIS PAGE

Dr. Reichenan goes on to say that it would be very difficult to make practical use of these figures if the final phase of the process were not left to another measuring instrument. This is the indicator of Dr. Weski, illustrated in Figure 1, the application of which on the human body is made in the following way:

The leg on the end of the horizontal indicator arm is adjusted on the auxiliary point and the arm itself brought in a line with the auxiliary line, which can be controlled by letting down the vertical leg attached to the horizontal arm. The second movable arm is then adjusted to the angle of the former X-ray exposure, moving its vertical leg lengthwise by as many centimeters as the depth-measuring instrument indicates. At this point the vertical leg is let down until it touches the skin of the patient. The missile is located plumb under this point at the measured depth. The result is the exact anatomical location.



## A NAVAL CONSTRUCTOR ON THE PROGRESS OF THE SUBMARINE

THE submarine, whether it does or does not ultimately fulfil Sir Percy Scott's famous prophecy of last June and drive the battleship from the seas, has certainly dispelled any doubts that may have been entertained by naval experts before the present war began as to the real importance of such craft in modern warfare.

An address on "The Modern Submarine in Naval Warfare," delivered before a section of the Franklin Institute by Mr. R. H. M. Robinson, a well-known ex-naval constructor of the United States Navy, is published in the current *Journal* of the same Institute. The author had many years' experience in designing battleships and other surface warships, and has therefore given much thought to the question of protecting such vessels from under-water attack. There are only two possible modes of defense; viz., the destruction of the hostile submarine, and the protection of the bottom of surface ships from torpedoes. The former task must be entrusted to vessels of the same order of size as the submarine, and the means of destruction are still problematical. As to protecting the bottom of a ship from torpedoes, the torpedo-net is a common expedient, but can only be used when the vessel is at anchor. Moreover, a net-cutter, attached to the nose of the torpedo, is likely to make this device ineffective. As to the alternative proposal to make the ship herself invulnerable:

Unfortunately, it is much easier to increase the power of the torpedo than it is to increase the defensive protection built into the hull of the dreadnought, with the result that, if any given class of surface ship has protection against the then existing torpedo, it is fairly easy to vitiate the value of this protection by increasing the power of the torpedo.

Structural features tending to secure protection from under-water attacks are (1) under-water armor, (2) additional compartmenting, and (3) compressed-air installations for localizing the inflow of water.

The best solution of the problem is a combination of the three methods referred to above: Proper compartmenting,—and by this I mean something different from the time-honored system in use in the older days,—under-water armor not located on the external hull of the ship, and a graduated compressed-air installation for checking the water after it gets into certain compartments.

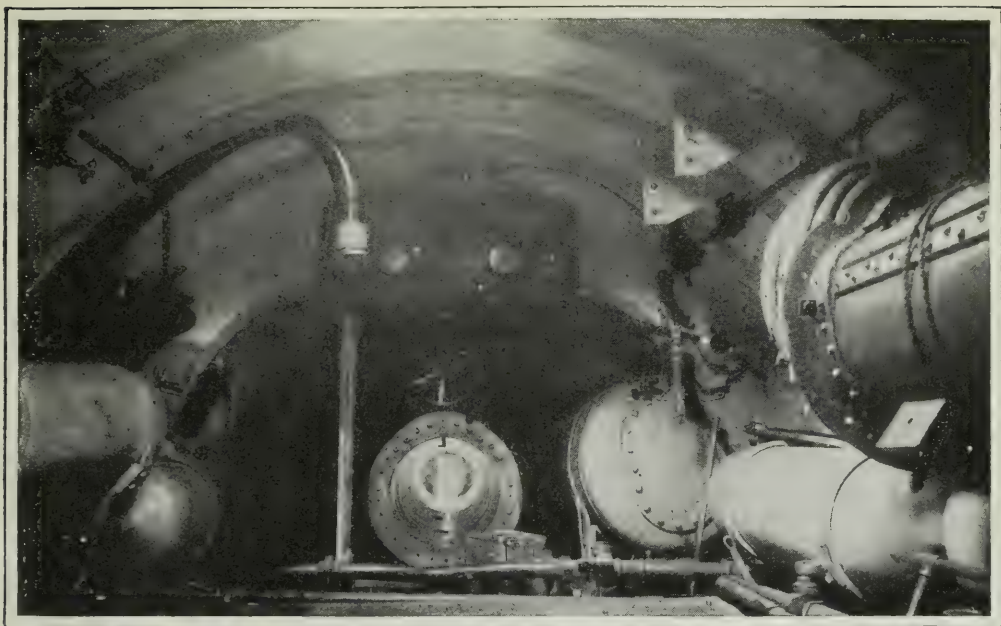
The author thus enumerates the essential features of the submarine from a military standpoint: Surface speed, surface radius, submerged speed, submerged radius, and armament. In considering the speed of submarines he devotes much space to the question of engines. Heavy-oil engines, in preference to gasoline engines, are now used for surface propulsion, and electric engines, run by storage battery, for submarine propulsion. Possibly a type of the future will use electrical engines exclusively for propulsion, the electricity being generated by an oil engine while the vessel is at the surface. Another plan contemplates storing air, at high pressure, in the tanks while the vessel is at the surface, and utilizing it in connection with the internal-combustion motor, which would thus work under water as well as above it.

The tendency of the United States Navy Department's requirements is in the direction of multiplicity of safety devices and escape hatches, greater water-tight subdivision, etc. While this may increase efficiency by giving the crew greater confidence, additional hatches are really a source of danger, and close subdivision interferes with economical arrangement of the interior. I believe the daredevil type of man who would naturally choose submarine service would rather have more effective means for dealing with the enemy and take any reasonable chance on his own safety.

Submarines must be variously constructed, according as they are intended for (1) harbor defense, (2) coast defense, or (3) general offensive operations. Classes 1 and 2 are relatively small vessels, and have only a moderate radius of action.

For the protection of the harbors on the east and west coasts of the United States it has been estimated by a naval authority that there should be a group of five coast defense submarines and one suitable tender stationed at each of the harbors and places which are considered worthy of protection for strategical reasons. It has been estimated that for the proper protection of the east and west coasts of the United States there should be a total of fifty-five coast defense submarines on the east coast, and a total of forty-five on the west coast. It is intended that these submarines be based on mobile tenders located at various points along the coast which the author enumerates. Additional submarines would be needed for the various outlying possessions of the United States.

The large sea-going type of submarine, capable of accompanying the fleet on distant



UNUSUAL VIEW OF INTERIOR OF SUBMARINE, SHOWING TUBE IN CENTER FOR DISCHARGING THE TORPEDO. ON RIGHT AND LEFT ARE SEEN COMPRESSED AIR FLASKS FOR FIRING AND OPERATING THE TORPEDO AND WATER-BALLAST TANKS FOR RISING TO THE SURFACE AND SINKING THE VESSEL

cruises, is a logical development of the future. England and France are already building such vessels, with a surface speed of eighteen to twenty knots, and a submerged speed of thirteen or fourteen knots.

The author deals in detail with the tactics and operations of the various types of submarines, but we have not space to summarize the novel and interesting facts set forth under

this head. As illustrating the expedients employed to lure the enemy into the submarine danger zone, it may be noted that the Germans are said to be using a fishing boat or some other surface vessel, pretending that it is a mine-layer, as a decoy; and that in fleet maneuvers weighted poles, painted to look like submarine periscopes, and floating with the tide, have also been used.

## GERMAN ART AND THE WORLD WAR

ONE of the moot questions of the day is the effect which the present war may be expected to exert on art. Will it be depressive or stimulating? So great an authority as Mr. William D. Howells holds to the former view, so far as literary art is concerned. The opposite view is expressed by the German critic, Robert West, writing in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* on the influences which the great struggle may be expected to exert upon the creative ability of German artists.

Opening his article with a discussion of the two exhibitions recently held in Munich, one at the Glass Palace, and the other given over to the works of the Secessionists, he de-

clares that both are infinitely rich in technique and lamentably poor in thought. In both he finds technical virtuosity, the easy conquest of difficulties, and astonishing skill in the reflection of reality.

This is particularly true of the Secession exhibition, in which there was scarcely a single insignificant picture. This outlay of technical skill bore a serious disproportion to the value of the content. The things represented entirely lacked both meaning and interest, but the manner of representation itself was finished and interesting.

It is for this reason, he believes, that landscapes, interiors, and studies of still life have been so much affected of recent years, while historical and *genre* pictures have been corre-



spondingly neglected, and he finds herein an indication that the artists have lost the power of discovering and properly developing suitable material.

Critics, artists, and the public have labored diligently for years to obliterate all interest of subject-matter in works of art. Nobody has remembered that we must finally put the question to ourselves: "Why portray anything at all if we are to banish all intrinsic value in the subject portrayed?" Apparently no one has recalled, either, that all of art is not comprised in color, drawing, brushwork *plein air*, impressionism, *pointillism*. What becomes, for example, of composition, grouping, and the artistic presentation of animated scenes? The power to portray pictorially an interesting occurrence seems to have been quenched along with the inventive faculty and imagination that enabled the artist to recognize themes for pictures in the wide realm of the historical and of present-day life.

Mr. West finds a close connection between this state of the pictorial art and modern social conditions. He quotes the dictum of Prof. Hamann in his "History of German Painting in the Nineteenth Century" to the effect that the individual is slightly valued in modern art and adds that this low valuation of personality is shown in our whole modern life.

At no time have men had so little interest in one another. Never has the individual been passed over with such indifference, never has the personality of a man counted for so little in comparison with the external circumstances of his life. The natural consequence of this is a slackening of sympathetic interest in the common human destiny and in the events of history.

The critic even ascribes the survival of the art of portrait painting merely to personal vanity! And he does not hesitate to add that the artist shows little interest in the individuality of the sitter from whom he has received a commission.

In landscape, still life, and interiors two tendencies are to be noted, he finds, one seeking to express the intimate depths of the German nature, but succeeding imperfectly because working with subhuman forms of existence, and the other displaying repellently by its brilliant technique the complete hardness and heartlessness of the modern cultivation of the intellect. These qualities Mr. West finds "absolutely un-German" and he is convinced that the effect of the present Titanic struggle will be to liberate the German soul from borrowed artificialities, and he dates this liberation of spirit from the petty, the trivial, and the frivolous from the day of mobilization, August 2, 1914, when the people were penetrated by the sense of a momentous and onmarching destiny. He finds

that "the wind of war has blown away the poisonous seeds of cultural lies" and that everywhere there are stirring new impulses.

Who dreamed that in the German people there was still sleeping this sense of duty, this courage for sacrifice, this capability of inspiration, this fearlessness, this loyalty, and this love of fatherland? This is the people in whom they would have fain bred spiritual stupidity and dullness of the imagination by pointing to the works of the French school as examples of what we lacked: keenness of intellect, superficial wit, and technical virtuosity.

The French were our masters, and our artists learned from Monet, and Monet from Cézanne and Toulouse-Lautrec. That was good. This culture-phase of technical study was needful and wholesome for German art. But now this phase is closed and there exists no further need to hark back to French exemplars to develop German art.

Just at that very time,—before the mobilization,—we were in danger of a certain stagnation, consisting in a placid pursuance of what we had learned from the French, instead of following our own road when technical ability had once been won. Was this because we saw no path open before us? Was the spirit heavy because there was nothing to arouse it? . . . Our art grew narrow, poor, and pale as our spiritual outlook.

Into this narrowness, this poverty, this paleness, there surged one day the breadth of world-history, the gushing richness of a thousand hearts, the blood-red words of war. Life and death came amongst us. . . . Boundless material was created for the German poet and the German painter. The history of our present will be the content of the art of our future. At present we possess not a single battle-picture of value. Perhaps now we shall succeed in creating such a one. . . . Pictures of war, of armies, of soldiers may be made. Perhaps art may find *motifs* as yet unused in the picturesqueness of uniforms and the rhythm of armies. . . . The backgrounds will be burning villages, shattered fortresses, trampled fields, the misery of the lazarets, and the helpfulness of the Red Cross columns. Sorrow and bitter need, and a joy deeper than any jubilation of victory will bind all into a lofty unity.

Mr. West adds in his fervor that hate and wrath make keen the eye for the pictorial and the poetic as well as sorrow and love.

Our German Fatherland has never looked so beautiful to us as to-day, when the East Prussians are fleeing before strange barbarians and our western borders are protected from French invasion by streams of blood. German individuality will once more be looked upon as German beauty. New social values are transformed into new perceptions of beauty; this law may be traced in the history of art of all peoples and times.

The social valuations which have been ripening in the German since the mobilization are of soldierly nature. The earnestness, the simplicity, the sense of duty, the determination of the soldier may lend their character to the new epoch which will be dated "Since the Mobilization of 1914." Our art will show forth the spirit and the deeds of our time. Once more our art is possessed of a content. This content will create for itself a new style, the soldierly style of the epoch of the world-war.



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LASSEN PEAK, CALIFORNIA, IN ERUPTION

## LASSEN PEAK UP TO DATE

**M**R. J. S. DILLER, of the United States Geological Survey, has happily described the volcanic activity of Lassen Peak as an exhibit specially arranged by Vulcan for the Panama-Pacific Exposition. Certainly the eruptions of the peak promise a unique experience for this year's visitors to the Pacific Coast; and the prospect is no doubt especially attractive to the hundreds of scientific men who are planning to attend the San Francisco meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. The forthcoming meeting, which begins on August 2, will be the first that the Association has ever held west of the Rocky Mountains, a fact almost as noteworthy as that the British Association, which has held sessions in Australia, Canada, and South Africa, has never yet met in London.

To make amends for its past neglect of the Pacific Coast, the Association proposes to devote its attention at the coming meeting chiefly to "investigations of world-wide interest for which materials are to be found upon the borders of the Pacific." The president of the meeting will be the director of the Lick Observatory. An official guide-book for scientific travelers in the West, entitled "Nature and Science on the Pacific Coast," has been prepared by some thirty leading

scientific men of the Far Western States. Lastly, the March number of the *Popular Science Monthly* is a "Pacific Coast Number," and in it we find the latest account of the Lassen Peak eruptions.

The article is by Professor R. S. Holway, and much of it is a repetition of his preliminary report on the eruptions, published last August in the *University of California Publications in Geography*. The writer now, however, brings the story up to the end of January, and gives his matured opinion concerning certain features of the outbreak, so that his article forms a valuable supplement to what has previously been written on the subject.

In his earlier account Professor Holway spoke of the Lassen Peak eruptions as probably "the first recorded instance of undoubted volcanic activity actually witnessed within the limits of the United States,"—exclusive of Alaska and other outlying possessions. The present article, however, recognizes the fact that Mt. Baker, Washington, was seen in eruption in 1854 and 1870 by Professor George Davidson, and Mounts Regnier and St. Helens in 1843 by J. C. Frémont. According to Indian reports, Lassen itself was in eruption about 1850, but the outbreak was probably witnessed by no white man. It re-



mains true, however, that the present activity of Lassen Peak is the first event of the kind that has occurred in the United States under circumstances rendering possible a scientific investigation of the phenomenon. In this connection it may be noted that no exhaustive, or even extensive, strictly scientific report on the volcano has yet been published. It is understood that Mr. Diller, already mentioned, will ultimately publish such a report.

From Professor Holway's narrative we extract the following salient facts in the history of the recent eruptions. The outbreak began May 30, 1914, at 5 p. m. During the succeeding six months, including one quiescent period of twenty-three days, there was an eruption every three days, on an average. At present there is no indication that activity has ceased.

The most marked changes in the new crater since the middle of June occurred during the month of September. The inner vent is reported to have grown to 900 feet in length, and photographs taken early in October show that the area of the opening had become fully five times its area at the end of June. The severity of the September eruptions is also attested by the fact the lookout house [*i. e.*, the fire lookout station of the U. S. Forest Service, located on the summit of Lassen Peak] was completely demolished on the twenty-ninth, no part of the walls being left standing. During the same eruption the forest lookout on Turner Mountain distinctly saw luminous bodies thrown out which appeared to him to be red-hot stones. This report is confirmed by other observers, some of whom declare they saw flames. So far as known to the writer, this is the only reliable observation during these eruptions which may possibly be interpreted as indicating that there has ever been an approach to the temperature of molten lava.

Other reports of "flames," published in the newspapers, probably arose from the sunset glow upon steam clouds. On January 23, 1915, an eruption "equal to any which have

gone before" is reported to have occurred from a new crater, east of the old one.

Numerous inquiries have come to the writer as to whether the eruptions of Lassen Peak are to be considered as truly volcanic. This is naturally a question of definition merely. A volcano is primarily an opening in the ground from which the internal forces of the earth project various materials, molten rock being an essential product *at some period* in the history of the volcano.

Many of the type examples of volcanic eruptions given in standard college text-books are, however, of the explosive type, in which no molten lava is ejected. The noted eruption of Bandai-San in Japan, on July 15, 1888, is an instance. This old volcanic cone, nearly 180 miles from Yokohama, had been without sign of life for a thousand years of recorded history, yet with only a few minutes of warning consisting of rumblings and moderate earthquake shocks the entire top of the mountain was blown away in some fifteen to twenty explosions lasting less than a half hour. There was no fresh lava or pumice thrown out. Ash and steam were projected upward about 4,000 feet, but the main force of the explosion was nearly horizontal, carrying destruction in a northerly direction for about four miles. The quantity of material blown away has been estimated at one-third of a cubic mile.

Had the steam been confined more effectively in Lassen and the force, instead of being gradually liberated during the six months, been freed during a few minutes, the results would undoubtedly have been comparable to those at Bandai-San. The point, however, is that the difference is qualitative merely, and that the nature and magnitude of the eruptions of Lassen Peak fully justify classing them as volcanic.

If the writer were to offer any forecast it would be that the changes going on at the top of Lassen seem likely to form a solfataric basin of the same general character as that of Bumpass' Hell. However, while there is volcanic life there is a possibility of renewed lava flows. Meantime the physiographer has an opportunity of seeing within the United States at least one phase of volcanic activity, and that on a mountain recently occupied by alpine glaciers and standing in a great lava flow studded with minor volcanic cones, many of them almost untouched by erosion—the whole offering a most inviting field for scientific investigation.

## THE STRANGE HISTORY OF AN INDIAN TRIBE

IN north central California, just west of the mountain whose recent volcanic exploits form the subject of the foregoing abstract, is a rough country of cañons and gullies in which was enacted one of the most curious chapters in the history of the aboriginal people of America. The story of "The Last Wild Tribe of California" is told by Professor T. T. Waterman in the "Pacific Coast Number" of *Popular Science*.

In the fall of 1908 some attention was aroused in the press by a story to the effect that hunters had encountered in the State of California a tribe of Indians who were still in the stone age. The idea of a "wild" tribe in a thickly settled region like California was so novel that it served to awaken a very wide interest. The Indians themselves, however, had meanwhile vanished. Some three years later an individual who had all the appearance of belonging to this group was apprehended in northern California. He was put in jail, and a few days later turned over to the uni-

versity. Since then he has been received everywhere as the last survivor of his tribe. The whole series of incidents deserves some explanation. I think it ought to be said at the outset that the story as given in the papers of that period is quite true. The individual captured in 1911 was a surviving member of a stone-age tribe. He is still alive and well at the university; and he has given from time to time extremely interesting accounts of the history of his people.

The relations between the Indians and the whites in California in the early period of white settlement were somewhat different from what prevailed generally in other parts of the West. The influx of settlers was so sudden and overwhelming that the resistance of the aborigines to the new order of things, though involving the same violence and bloodshed as elsewhere, was of relatively short duration and left no permanent impress upon history. The white occupation was rapid and relentless. A few wild regions, however, continued to be Indian strongholds.

In the northeastern part of Sacramento Valley there lived a nation of Indians who were early driven into a vigorous hostility to the whites. They had already, from their friction with other tribes, developed some adeptness in raiding and thieving, and in a sort of guerrilla warfare. Their northern branch, the so-called Nozi, after a time capitulated, and became hangers-on of civilization. The southern branch of the stock, calling themselves simply Yahi, or "people," and inhabiting a stretch of country immediately east of the Sacramento, kept the whites in a state of uncertainty for a considerably longer time.

The region especially identified with this tribe is the country immediately about Mill Creek, a part of the great lava cap surrounding Lassen Peak, abounding in cañons, crags, promontories, and caves. Hardly touched by civilization, this region is still the resort of animals, and to some extent of plants, that are becoming extinct elsewhere; and here the Yahi made a long and determined stand against the invader.

In the course of their life in these cañons they developed an intense hatred and fear of the whites. They came to be hunted very much like wild animals. Accordingly they developed peculiar habits of visiting the valley in sudden forays, escaping instantly to the hills afterwards. These sudden visitations, often resulting in the loss of life as well as property, were a genuine bugbear to homesteaders. On the other hand, the Indians were on their part often harried by famine. Pres-

sure from the whites prevented them from making full use of the natural foods the country afforded.

Between the years 1850 and 1865 this group was more or less under observation by the Government. Rumors of battle, murder, and sudden death came frequently from this region to the central authorities in San Francisco and Sacramento. On one or two occasions attempts were made by the War Department to apply the universal remedy for Indian troubles,—removal to a reservation.

The end of the Mill Creek "war" was unusual and to some extent tragic. A party of armed whites, acting without other authority than resentment and an inborn savagery, surprised the tribe on the upper waters of Mill Creek in 1865. Their effort apparently was to wipe out this Indian group on the spot. On the admission of men who took part in the action, fire was opened on the defenseless Indians in the early morning, and an uncertain number of them, men, women, and children, shot down. A few, not more than three or four, perhaps, escaped into the brush and got clear. The Mill Creek tribe as a tribe disappeared from history at this time. With one or two possible exceptions, nothing was seen of it again for over thirty-five years.

The survivors who escaped these executive measures of 1865 were too few in number to resume their old mode of life. They were, on the other

hand, so small a party that they succeeded in hiding away. Little by little they emerged from their hiding places and took up again the procuring of food by hunting and fishing. They did not, however, allow themselves to be seen. They undoubtedly expected annihilation to follow on discovery, and probably there was sound judgment behind this belief. The almost entire absence of information concerning them proves that they took to the wildest places, and stayed there. All that we positively know about them is that they disappeared in 1865, but were still alive in 1908. Under the circumstances, they



ISHI, THE LAST OF THE YAHÍ

(From a photograph taken after his capture at Oroville, California in 1911. He is wearing a "slaughter-house apron" put on him before he was taken to town.)



must have remained "primitive." Only the primitive mode of life was open to them. They were primitive when they went into retirement, and it was their salvation. When seen again in 1908 they still used the bow and arrow and other aboriginal appliances, and were absolutely unfamiliar with the usages of civilization. Their avoidance of observation of any kind left them as isolated as if they had been literally on another continent.

During the time that they thus remained hidden from observation they only gave token of their existence by occasionally stealing food from lonely mountain cabins. Some time after 1885 they shifted their habitat from Mill Creek to the more rugged and less accessible gorge of the adjacent Deer Creek.

Such was the life of this group until the year 1908. At that time a party of surveyors, on engineering business, happened by mere luck to encounter them. One evening a naked savage was suddenly observed, standing on a rock by the stream side, armed with a long spear. This resulted, from all accounts, in the equal alarm of all parties. The next morning, those members of the party who had not run all the way to camp, went down to the place, cast about in the brush, and finally came upon the Indian lodges. Two Indians, running for their lives, were actually seen,—one of them an old man, helped along by a middle-aged woman. This fleeting glimpse is all that we know of these individuals. They have never been seen again. Their actual fate is still unknown. . . . They seem to have perished from cold, hunger, and exposure.

Nearly three years later, in August, 1911, at a slaughter-house four miles from Oroville, eighty miles away, one morning there suddenly appeared from nowhere a naked Indian. His only garment was an old cast-off undershirt. He was thin, hungry, greatly worn, and of most unusual appearance. The people in charge of the premises telephoned to the sheriff and reported with some excitement the presence of a "wild man." No one, Indian or white, could make him understand a word. The sheriff of Butte County came out, took the wild man in charge and gave him, as the most available lodging, the insane cell of the jail. When the news reached the university, the appearance of this strange Indian was at once con-

nected with the Yahi tribe of Deer Creek, in which the department of anthropology had long been interested. It fell to the lot of the present writer to journey to Oroville to identify him. Our only resource was to "try him out" with a vocabulary in the Nozi dialect, since there was no material in existence in what was thought to be his own proper language. The first impression received of the wild Indian was the sight of him, draped in a canvas apron they had hurriedly put on him at the slaughter-house, sitting on the edge of a cot in his cell, still uncertain of his fate, and answering *ulisi* ("[I don't] understand") to all the questions that were being fired at him in English, Spanish, and half a dozen Indian languages by visitors. The present writer's amateur attempts at Yana were equally unintelligible to him for a long time. An agreement was finally reached, however, on the word for the material of which his cot was made, *si'avin'i*, or yellow pine. His face lightened up at this word, though he evidently could hardly trust his senses. These were probably the first intelligible sounds he had heard from a human being in three years.

Since those days he has become a regular member of the Museum staff. He has revisited Deer Creek cañon in our company, and there is not a foot of the country he does not know. There is not the slightest doubt that it has been his home. He led the party to the old lodges in the jungle at Bear's Hiding Place, he communicated scores of place-names up and down the stream for miles, and even led the way over to his old lurking places on Mill Creek, some distance to the north. In other words, he has told us all he could, in a general way, about the tribe. He has, however, been curiously backward in telling the intimate history of his own immediate group.

This is apparently due to a superstitious, and perhaps partly sentimental, aversion to mentioning the dead. He has not even disclosed his own name, but is known to his new associates as "Ishi," which, in his native tongue, means simply "man."

Perhaps he will ultimately grow more communicative on these subjects. In any case, he is affording Professor Waterman and his colleagues a unique opportunity to study at first hand the mind of a primitive man.

## PROSPEROUS ICELAND

THE future of Iceland is the subject of an article contributed to the *American Scandinavian Review* (New York), by Gudmundur Magnússon, who is one of the literary men of that country. Because of the unfortunate naming of the island, the physical and climatic features of Iceland are generally misunderstood. While it is true that Iceland lies north of the southern boundary of the Arctic ice region, the Gulf Stream, which encircles the island, is usually strong enough to keep the drift ice a considerable

distance to the north. However, the main current of drifting ice is sufficiently near to influence the climate of Iceland, especially in the summer, when the masses of ice that have gathered during the preceding winter are carried southward by the Gulf Stream.

As a consequence the winters of Iceland are very mild, while the summers are comparatively cold. In the year 1912 the mean temperature in the southern part of the island was 39.4 degrees Fahrenheit for the entire year, while for the four summer



From the American-Scandinavian Review

AN ICELANDIC FARM

months it was only 48.9 degrees. Cloudiness prevails for a great part of the year, producing masses of vapor which constantly rise from the ocean and are carried in over the country summer and winter. In 1912 the southern districts of Iceland had more than 200 days of rainy weather, 25 days of snow, and 18 of fog. How this cold, raw climate has influenced the land and the people is shown in the following paragraphs:

There are hardly any forests, for in such a climate only the dwarf birch will thrive, and even this is sparse. The greater part of the country has very little vegetation; it is mountainous, with deserts of lava or drifting sand, and with large stretches covered by eternal snow. The rock formations in the mountains are of very soft and porous stone, such as basalt, dolomites, and tufa, which crumble easily under the influence of the atmosphere, and in this way the sides of the mountains are covered with gravel, which is forever sliding down and is poorly adapted for vegetation. Generally speaking, therefore, it is only a small part of the country, chiefly regions along the coasts and in the river valleys, which is inhabitable by human beings. This sunless and raw weather has also influenced the character of the people, by dampening all initiative and producing a tendency to melancholy, which is apparent in all their thought and action, and is mirrored in their literature. . . .

Agriculture and fishing are the two main industries of the country. In former times agriculture was practically the only pursuit, and fishing,—with small rowboats,—was pursued only as a side issue by the farmers. At present, however, only 51 per cent. of the population live by agriculture. Farming is practised about as it has been for the last thousand years. The cultivation of the soil is

usually confined to a yard around the house, which, however, is constantly being extended. The cultivation of outlying fields consists solely in the irrigation or draining of the meadows for hay. Potatoes and various kinds of cabbage are grown for domestic use. Grain will not ripen.

The stock consists of sheep, cattle, and horses, and it is from these that the farmer derives his chief income. During the brief summer it is important to gather as much hay as possible in order to keep these animals alive, and if the weather is unfavorable it is sometimes a difficult task. The people on the farms often show an almost superhuman strength and endurance in utilizing the few fair summer days, and there is always a dearth of farmhands.

In some parts of the country the production of butter has increased very much, and a new market has been opened in the country of our great neighbor, England. Young Icelandic horses have also in the last few years been very much in demand and have become an important article of export.

The fisheries of Iceland have increased of late until they now produce two-thirds of the wealth of the country. Most of the fish is salted and dried, and then sent to the Mediterranean countries, but some of the steamers sell it fresh to England. Last fall a shipload of dried fish was brought from Iceland to New York in the freighter *Hermod*, said to have been the first Icelandic ship to visit America since the days of Leif the Lucky. The fish was sold at New York, and with the purchase money a load of grain was bought for the Icelanders, whose usual supplies from Europe had been cut off by the great war.



The most urgent need of Iceland, according to this writer, is modern means of transportation. Practically the entire traffic is carried on by sea, with the aid of Danish and Norwegian steamers, and small trading posts have been built along the entire coast-line. The population has been drawn from the fertile lands of the interior down to the barren coast, and the only agency that can be counted on to effect a change in this condition is the railroad.

In spite of all drawbacks, however, it is clear that Iceland has made a rapid advance and is now a really prosperous country. In forty years the nation's annual income has increased tenfold, important roads and iron bridges have been built, and a telegraph line of 5000 kilometers has been erected. The national wealth has doubled, and the banks circulate an annual sum of 50,000,000 or 60,000,000 *kroner*. More than thirty savings-banks have been established, with deposits amounting to 3,000,000 *kroner*. During the present year the first Icelandic steamship line has been started. During the nineteenth century the population of Iceland increased from 39,000 to 85,000, although 30,000 persons had emigrated to America.

Many American readers may possibly be surprised to learn that Iceland has a literature of her own and a distinct intellectual life:

The literature of Iceland, which bloomed so richly in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, has never been entirely silenced. Poetry has flourished

in all times, and there is hardly any period of our history which is not represented by fairly good skalds. Last year we celebrated the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of the poet Hallgrímur Pjetursson. He was the greatest and most spiritual hymn-writer that Iceland has produced, and his memory was honored by thanksgiving services in all the churches of Iceland on the first Sunday in Lent.

It is in the course of the last century, however, that the literature of Iceland has bloomed as never before. A very considerable literary activity in all fields has grown up in a comparatively short time, and has sufficed to carry the name of Iceland far out over the great ocean which surrounds the island.

Hitherto all our higher intellectual life has been nourished from the Danish university, but on June 17, 1911, the centenary of the birth of Iceland's great champion of liberty, Jón Sigurdsson, an Icelandic university was established in Reykjavik. This institution is yet in its infancy and has not even a roof over its head, but in the future it will surely become a firm center for the intellectual life of Iceland and, perhaps, also an important link in the educational development of the North.

Iceland is described as one of the most beautiful countries in the world, and when it becomes better known it may be confidently expected that the mountain scenery of the island will attract tourists from America and Europe. Large cupola-shaped mountains rise like Oriental temples from the ocean or the level plain, their tops covered with perpetual snow. Then there are many mighty and beautiful water falls, great lakes, steaming springs, and craters still warm. The play of colors is said to be fascinating, especially in the fair, mild summer nights.



From the American-Scandinavian Review

BRINGING IN THE HAY CROP IN ICELAND

# THE FOUNDER OF THE ALUMINUM INDUSTRY

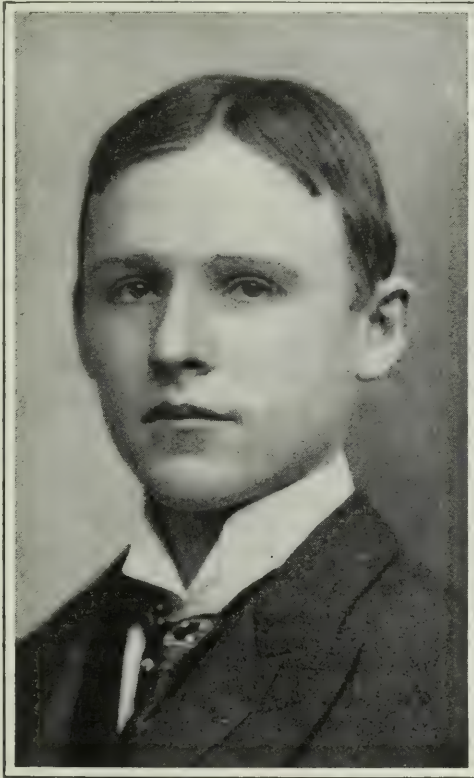
FROM time to time, beginning as long ago as 1897, this REVIEW has called attention to the rapid development of the aluminum industry in this country. The recent death (in December last) of Charles Martin Hall, inventor of the electrolytic process by which aluminum is made, and the founder of the industry in America, together with the announcement of the generous bequests made by him to the cause of education, gives timeliness to the account of Mr. Hall's work contributed to the *Nation* (New York) by Professor Karl F. Geiser. In this résumé it is stated that the investments in America resultant from Mr. Hall's inventions and discoveries in connection with aluminum now amount to about \$175,000,000, and the industry is still regarded as in its infancy. In a period of less than thirty years the price of the metal in the world's market has been reduced more than 90 per cent. If this is true, as has been remarked in this connection by Professor Joseph W. Richards, that "the man who takes a rare metal and makes out of it a common metal, and brings it into everyday use, has made the entire human race his debtor," this country may well value the services to humanity of Charles Martin Hall.

Professor Geiser reminds us that Mr. Hall conducted the experiments that led to his great discovery without the aid of a laboratory of the modern type. A graduate of Oberlin College, an institution that always stood primarily for the classical type of education, the young inventor was thrown on his own resources, and, on February 23,

1886,—less than eight months after his graduation from college,—he succeeded in obtaining the first globule of aluminum from the electrolysis of cryolite. This was a result that no other experimenters, even those supplied with the most perfect equipment, had, up to that time, obtained. But a few months later Dr. Paul Héroult, working individually in France, hit upon essentially the same process. Neither knew of the other's work.

Many years elapsed before the industry could be placed upon an enduring basis. The originality of the invention was attacked in the courts, and after it had been successfully defended, it was still necessary to demonstrate to men of capital that the demand for such a product would justify the necessary investments for its manufacture. In the meantime the practical application of the process of manufacture required still other inventions, which Mr. Hall perfected, and for which he received a patent.

The commercial manufacture of aluminum was begun near Pittsburgh, in 1888, but within a few years the operating company became the first consumers



THE LATE CHARLES MARTIN HALL  
(Inventor of the electrolytic process for the manufacture of aluminum and the donor of great sums for education)

of the electric supply by the Niagara Falls Power Company, and directed large works at that point. It now has works at Massena, N. Y., on the St. Lawrence, and at Shawenigan Falls, in Canada. The total consumption of electricity by the company is 140,000 horse-power, and the annual output of aluminum now exceeds 4,000,000 pounds, at an average price of nineteen cents a pound.

As Professor Geiser clearly shows, the financial success that came to Mr. Hall as



the result of his efforts meant no selfish indulgence nor the acquisition of power over others; it meant greater service to mankind in various directions.

Throughout his life he had been interested in Christian education, in art, in music, in nature,—in a word, in all the finer things of life; and the munificent bequests disclosed by his will are but the expressions of his life and the loftiness of his purpose. His gifts to Oberlin College, his alma mater, of which he was also a trustee, exceed three million dollars, and this represents but a part of his large fortune distributed in equally generous proportions for the cause of education in

the South, in Japan, China, Asia, Turkey, the Balkan States, and other parts of the world. The results of thirty years turned to such an account cannot be measured; nor can an adequate estimate be placed upon the significance of the scientific discovery with which Mr. Hall's name will be forever linked. But when one considers the easily accessible source of the raw material, that, in the words of the inventor, "every bank of clay is a mine of aluminum," and the myriad possibilities of the metal because of its properties and the rare quality of its lightness, it is not too much to say that the future historian will regard the discovery of Charles Martin Hall as having "introduced a new era in the world's history,—the Age of Aluminum."

## WHY JAPAN DOES NOT WANT THE PHILIPPINES

CERTAIN reasons why Japan might want the Philippines have been frequently set forth. In the *Bellman* (Minneapolis) Mr. Maurice Pratt Dunlap states a few reasons why she might not want them. At any rate, he makes quite clear the fact that there are definite drawbacks to a Japanese occupation of the Philippines, at least for the present.

It has been argued that Japan is a small country with a surplus population that could well be accommodated in the Philippines, a fertile island empire to the south which now has a population of 75 to the square mile as against Japan's 330. The fact is, however, that the Philippines have a climate that is distinctly unsuited to the Japanese constitution. The question is whether, in spite of this handicap, the Japanese colonist could be induced to settle in the Philippines in large groups.

Because Chinese colonists seem to thrive in the Philippines the conclusion has been drawn that the Japanese would do equally well, since the two races are thought of as similar. Mr. Dunlap disputes this contention, affirming that the Japanese does not accommodate himself much, if any, better than does the American to the Philippine climate. The last official census showed that there were 55,614 Chinese in the Philippines, and only 921 Japanese. In the city of Manila alone there were over 25,000 Chinese and only 721 Japanese. In this connection it should be remembered that since 1902 there has been a prohibition of Chinese immigration to the islands, while no such bar against Japanese immigration exists. Yet, although the Japanese have always had free access to the islands, it is clear that they have

taken little advantage of it. Since the American occupation has brought increased prosperity to the Philippines, a few more Japanese have come to the islands, but not enough more to affect appreciably their ratio to the Filipino population.

The male Japanese population of the Philippines is chiefly made up of merchants, carpenters, and fishermen. When the last census was taken there were more Englishmen in the islands than there were male Japanese. The latter have stomach trouble and fevers and lose their vitality, just as Americans often do, and go back to Japan to recuperate.

As to the need of territory for the expansion of Japan's surplus population, Mr. Dunlap argues that there is no necessity of going a thousand miles to the south while just across a narrow body of water are great lands sparsely populated in the same latitude—lands that could be defended without any extension of Japan's navy. Korea and Japan are both healthful and fitted for Japanese colonization, while Manchuria is another available area rich in resources and with a temperate climate.

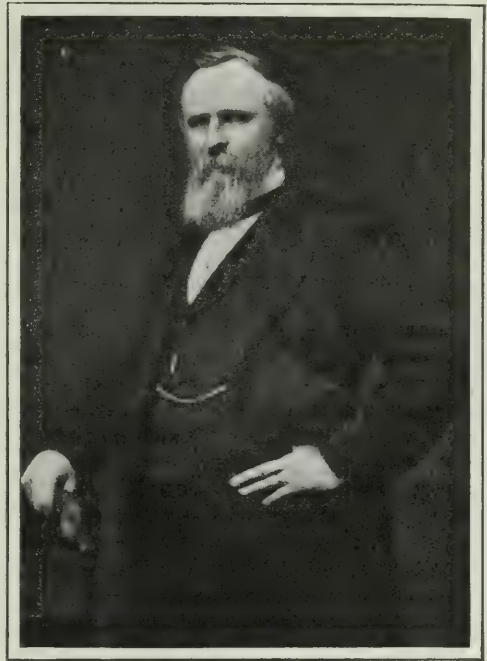
Furthermore, Japan is already heavily taxed (it is estimated that the Japanese laborer now contributes about one-third of his earnings in some form to his government) and the conquest of the Philippines would only add to the national burden. On the whole, therefore, Mr. Dunlap concludes that "there is every economic reason in the world why Japan should not want the Philippines,—that is, while the rich and powerful United States holds its sway over them; and there are racial and climatic reasons which go deeper still."

# TWO GREAT REPUBLICANS

**R**UTHERFORD B. HAYES retired from the Presidency on March 4, 1881, and from that date until his death in January, 1893, he held no public office, but was active in various philanthropic causes, notably the Slater and Peabody funds for education in the South and the National Prison Association. His most intimate personal and political friend had been William Henry Smith, for many years president of the Associated Press. It had been arranged that the final authorized biography of President Hayes should be prepared by Mr. Smith, and to that end much documentary material had been collected, but little had been written prior to Mr. Smith's death in 1896.

Four years ago the task was assumed, at the point where Mr. Smith had left it, by his son-in-law, Mr. Charles Richard Williams, an experienced journalist. The work has now been completed in the form of a two-volume biography,<sup>1</sup> which presents the Hayes papers in such a way as to give an orderly and adequate narrative of the President's whole life. Throughout the work Mr. Hayes is permitted to speak for himself and to tell the history of his times as he had himself understood and interpreted it.

The present generation, in estimating such a career as that of President Hayes, is likely to overlook the bearing which his war record had on his later political aspirations. Hayes had nearly reached middle life when the war broke out, having been since his college days a practising lawyer in Cincinnati. His general maturity, as well as a certain aptitude for military life, quickly gave him distinction in the volunteer service. At the end of the war he was a Brigadier-General and the honor had been won, as everyone admitted, by valor in the field. As in so many other instances, the transition from military distinction to political preferment was rapid. Hayes was sent to Congress, was three times elected Governor of Ohio, and was serving his third term when the Republican Convention of 1876 nominated him for the Presidency. In those days there were hosts of "war politicians," but of them all there were few who had the solid endowments of char-



RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES  
(Nineteenth President of the United States)

acter and practical wisdom and experience that Hayes possessed when he became the Republican standard-bearer in the "centennial year."

The election was a close one and from the States of Florida, Louisiana, Oregon, and South Carolina there were two sets of returns, one for Tilden and one for Hayes. This caused an extraordinary situation, which, at one time, even threatened civil war. To meet the emergency Congress created an "Electoral College" composed of five Republican and five Democratic members of Congress, two Republican and two Democratic Justices of the United States Supreme Court, and a fifth Justice chosen by the four originally named. This commission divided eight to seven on all the contested returns that were brought before it in favor of the Republican returns, thus bringing about the choice of Governor Hayes in the Electoral College by a vote of 185 to 184.

Hayes was one of the few Presidents in our history whose fame has been enhanced rather than diminished with the years. Tak-

<sup>1</sup> The Life of Rutherford Birchard Hayes, Nineteenth President of the United States. 2 vols. By Charles Richard Williams. Houghton Mifflin. 842 pp., ill. \$7.50.



ing office at a time of the most intense partisanship, after an administration in which his own party had set a bad example of corruption in government, at a time also when financial heresies were rife, and when the Southern States were still suffering from the effects of the Civil War, it required courage on his part to press, so far as it could be done without the support of Congress, the reform of the national civil service, to remove the Federal troops from the South, to take a resolute stand against cheap money, and to bring to pass, through sane and orderly methods, the resumption of specie payments.

These things, too, were accomplished with only lukewarm support from the administration's own party and in almost every case with active opposition from large elements of that party. The estrangement between President Hayes and the Republican party organization was hardly less marked than that which in later years developed between President Cleveland and the Democratic party. Hayes offended party leaders like Conkling, of New York, by his resolute anti-spoils attitude, and he caused anxious moments to the Republican masses at the North by his courageous refusal to uphold the "carpet-bag" governments of the South. His currency policy did not altogether commend itself to the rank and file of either party, many of whom had been captivated by "fiat money," and similar delusions. It seemed as if circumstances conspired from the very outset to make the Hayes administration an unpopular one. The doubt that had been cast upon the election and the peculiar method by which that election had been confirmed made it all the more difficult for any President, however upright and well-intentioned, to conduct his office to the satisfaction of the whole people. There were thousands of Republicans, as well as an overwhelming majority of Democrats, who honestly believed that Samuel J. Tilden, instead of Rutherford B. Hayes, should have occupied the White House for the four years 1877-81.

Yet with all these untoward circumstances Hayes gave the country not merely a passably good administration, but a conspicuously able and clean one. His cabinet contained such leaders as John Sherman, Secretary of the Treasury; William M. Evarts, Secretary of State, and Carl Schurz, Secretary of the Interior. There have not been many cabinets in our national history that have outranked it. From first to last there was no hint of scandal affecting any branch of the public

service while Hayes was in the White House, and, considering the era of political debauchery that immediately preceded, and the insidious evils in public life that naturally resulted from the war, this is high praise. In his first message to Congress Hayes had said: "He serves his party best who serves his country best," and the whole genius of his administration is summed up in those words. In these days such a declaration would seem only sound and accepted doctrine for any President to announce, but in 1877 a man in office who said such a thing took his life in his hand, so far as the politicians were concerned.

If one were to form his opinion from contemporary newspaper references, it might be assumed that President Hayes was an isolated figure in public life,—a man without friends and unappreciated by his own generation. Yet the correspondence published in these two volumes gives the lie to such an assumption. Mr. Hayes was on the most cordial terms with representative men in both the great parties. Among army officers and veterans of the great war he had an especially large acquaintance. He knew Presidents Garfield, Cleveland, and Harrison, and was associated with Theodore Roosevelt in the prison reform movement. Of those who became Presidents after his death he had known McKinley most intimately, their friendship dating from Civil War service, when McKinley had been a Major in the regiment commanded by Hayes.

In private as well as official life no American public man has had higher standards of personal conduct than those that were maintained by Mr. Hayes. He was one of the long line of Presidents who, in their individual and family life, have been gentlemen in the fullest American sense of the word.

It happens that almost simultaneously with the long-awaited appearance of the Hayes biography there comes from the same press the authorized life of Thomas B. Reed, of Maine, by the Hon. Samuel W. McCall.<sup>1</sup> "Tom" Reed was another Republican leader, who, in the opinion of many Americans both within and without his own party, was entitled by his abilities and his services to a Presidential nomination. Two men more unlike than Hayes and Reed it would be hard to name, yet on some things they were fully agreed. Both were loyal and enthusiastic party men. Both accepted implicitly

<sup>1</sup> The Life of Thomas Brackett Reed. By Samuel W. McCall. Houghton Mifflin. 303 pp., ill. \$3.

the faith once delivered to the Republican saints of the Civil War era, and each kept that faith unswervingly to the end. On the currency question, particularly, Reed's services to the cause of sound money were hardly less noteworthy than those of Hayes in the campaign of 1876 and the following years.

At the time when Hayes was reaching his zenith Reed was just beginning his public career, having been elected to Congress in the same campaign which placed Hayes in the White House. The first work which focused public attention on Reed's special abilities in Congress was his cross-examination of witnesses before a committee of the House conducting an inquiry into election frauds in the Southern States. As his biographer clearly brings out, it was Reed's skill as a cross-examiner that turned the tide of public sentiment which had been setting in strongly against the recognition of Hayes as the rightful claimant to the office of President. Reed accomplished this by showing the strong possibilities, if not probabilities, of attempted fraud on the part of the Tilden managers. This was done through the translation of cipher despatches traced to Tilden's nephew.

Reed's chief claim to distinction, of course, lies in the courageous attitude that he took and held while Speaker of the House on the much-disputed question of "counting a quorum." He asserted the right to count in roll-calls those members of the House who were present and refused to vote. This course of Reed's was directly contrary to precedent established by both parties and could only be justified by direct appeal to the Constitution. The Speaker was supported in his stand by his own party, but this biography discloses that he was by no means assured of that support when he announced his position, and that he was fully determined, in the event of failure to be sustained by the House, to resign his seat and enter on the practise of law in New York.

As a political speaker Reed was without a peer in the East and in every campaign his services were in demand throughout the country. It is no secret that in the campaigns of 1892 and 1896 many Republicans of the Roosevelt type would have rejoiced to have Reed as their standard-bearer. His wit and brilliancy in repartee may have made him some enemies during his Congressional career, but there can be little doubt that those qualities served to enhance his popularity in the country. There were public men among his contemporaries whom Reed did not like and he may have taken less than ordinary



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THE HON. THOMAS BRACKETT REED  
(Speaker of the House for three terms)

precaution to conceal those personal dislikes. He quarreled with President Harrison over the Portland collectorship, and after that office had been placed in hostile hands, Reed expressed his disgust in the following terms: "I had but two enemies in Maine, and one of them Harrison pardoned out of the penitentiary and the other he appointed Collector of Portland."

Robert G. Ingersoll and Theodore Roosevelt were among Reed's warmest friends, and even after Reed thought it necessary to leave public life because of differences with his party on the question of the Philippines, the cordial relations with Roosevelt continued unbroken. Mr. Reed resigned his seat in Congress in 1899, and for the remaining three years of his life he was engaged in the practise of his profession in New York City.

The opposition party in Congress, in course of time, came to adopt the same parliamentary rules that had caused them to denounce "Czar Reed" during his occupancy of the Speaker's chair. Both Republicans and Democrats, many of whom had at first been divided on the wisdom of Reed's course, came at last to acknowledge its essential justice, and to pay tribute to the courage and fearlessness of the man who dared to maintain it against unusual odds.



# THE NEW BOOKS

## GRANVILLE BARKER, THE NEW ART OF THE THEATER AND THE NEW DRAMA



"SNOUT" AS "WALL"

ago in Austria, Italy, France, and Germany. What Futurism is to painting and to poetry, the new methods of presenting plays are to the art of the theater. This stage Futurism is an attempt to make a new channel of expression; it sets mood, sensation and impression above naturalism, and breaks away from form in order to reveal true form,—the rhythmic shifting curve that in art adjusts the inner essence of things with their reality. The greatest English exponent of this art is Gordon Craig, the son of Ellen Terry. He has not achieved in actual results as much as other innovators, but he is the master of the art of infinite suggestion, and often in his studies in stage craft approaches a point where no other art save music can take up the theme. Russia has Bakst and Stanislavsky; France, Jacques Rouche; Germany, Reinhardt, and besides Gordon Craig, England has Granville Barker and Norman Wilkinson, who have brought their experiments to New York.

George Bernard Shaw's



HUNTSMAN IN "MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM"

THE advent of Mr. Granville Barker as a theatrical producer in this country has brought before us a type of the "New Art of the Theater," and aroused general curiosity as to the nature of this so-called new art and the manner of its origin. It is safe to say that this esthetic experimentation arose simultaneously with the symbolist school of literature that took form a few years

play, "Androcles and the Lion," "The Man Who Married a Dumb Wife," by Anatole France, and a fantastic production of Shakespeare's "Midsummer Night's Dream," have so far been chosen for presentation in the new manner.

The features that immediately challenge attention are: the apron stage, the omission of footlights, the lighting of the stage from the balcony,



"SNUG" AS THE LION (DESIGN BY NORMAN WILKINSON)

the simplified proscenium arch, and the curious settings which suggest rather than portray the actual scenes of the plays. Farther than this the new art of the theater is a thing of subtle esthetic values, of the control of decorative movement, of the studied juxtaposition of colors, groupings that follow geo-

metric laws, and an attempt at an effect that synthesizes emotion, produces a mood, and wrenches essentials from the cold forms in which they are embodied. A study of Mr. Barker's arrangement of "Midsummer Night's Dream," will reveal these elements of treatment. There are many who take issue with Mr. Barker's staging. He has gilded his fairies even to their faces; the green sward and starry night of the revels is palpably a painted drop; the time-honored bower of Titania is muslin flooded with opalescent light, and the Athenian forest, strips of swaying green cloth. Now, according to the spirit in which one has conceived Shakespeare's airy comedy, one will like or dislike this staging. If Titania and the fairies are but tricky fays that flutter about in forests and where "wild thyme grows," why, you will not like it. But if you have created fairies for yourself,—not in an actual world of time and place, but in a world of light imagination where they move as dispassionate, viewless dream-folk,—you will welcome a suggestion of new appreciations in these passionless gilded fairies.

The decorations of "The Man Who Married a Dumb Wife," are by Mr. Jones, a newcomer, who has achieved instant success with his staging of Rabelaisian humor. This medieval buffoonery is

so skilfully arranged by Anatole France as to present a running satire on modern life and present-day over-talkative women. "Androcles and the Lion" is given just the right balance by the nimble Mr. Barker. The introduction of Christian martyrs into a play that at best only aspires to serious moments is ticklish business, and Mr. Shaw is indebted to Mr. Barker's admirable discretion for the maintenance of the consistency of Mr. Shaw's satire.

Mr. Barker's intellectual dramas, like the Shaw plays, have well-defined intellectual purposes. In "Madras House" we have the Huxtable family, —father and mother and six unmarried daughters, —who illustrate the evil effects of an artificial social code. Barker contrasts this strange emasculated household with broad views of sex freedom, but he attempts no conclusions, —merely raising the question whether frankness and mutual agree-



"THE CAPTAIN" (IAN MACLAREN) IN "ANDROcles AND THE LION"

(Costume designed by Albert Rothenstein)

ment between husband and wife would not bring us into the peace of a permanent and tranquil understanding of life and a higher conception of marriage.<sup>1</sup>

Granville Barker is still in his thirties; he was born in London in 1877, and made his first appearance on the stage in 1891. Three years later he joined J. E. Vedrenne in managing the Court Theater, and in 1909 undertook the managership of Charles Frohman's Repertory Theater, the Duke of York's. He is joint author with Lawrence Hausman of "Prunella."

<sup>1</sup> "Madras House," "Anatol," "The Marrying of Anne Leete" and "The Voysey Inheritance" are published by Mitchell Kennerley. "Twelfth Night" and "The Winter's Tale," with introductions by Granville Barker, by the Baker Publishing Company, of Boston. "Midsummer Night's Dream," by Heinemann, of London.



GRANVILLE BARKER, THE ENGLISH STAGE PRODUCER AND PLAYWRIGHT

(Author of "The Marrying of Anne Leete," 1901; "The Voysey Inheritance," 1905; "Waste," 1907; "The Madras House," 1910; "Prunella" (with Lawrence Housman), 1904; "Anatol" [paraphrase from the German of Arthur Schnitzler], 1911)



"SPINTHO" (ARNOLD LUCY) IN "ANDROcles AND THE LION"

(Costume designed by Albert Rothenstein)



## A RECENT CRITICISM OF NATURALISM

Mr. Sheldon Cheney, a disciple of Mr. Barker's methods, has recently published an inspiring volume that, while lacking in background, is rich in enthusiasm. One chapter takes issue "squarely" with Belascoism. The well-informed critic might reasonably ask with what kind of Belascoism, for Mr. Belasco has in the long years of his career used now and again one and all of the innovations that have been grouped together under the name of the "New Art of the Theater."<sup>1</sup> Thirty years ago in California Mr. Belasco, in a production of the Passion Play, built out his stage and dispensed with footlights. In Sophocles' "Electra," presented in New York and Boston in 1889, the apron stage was used with extreme simplification of scenic detail. In "The Darling of the Gods" and in "Peter Grimm," Mr. Belasco also built out his stage over a portion of the orchestra seats. His only quarrel with bizarre settings is that they give the author less chance to get his story over the footlights. Stage illusion should uplift the theme of the play, not attract attention to itself. There is much to be said on both sides of this question, but if Mr. Cheney's quarrel with Belascoism is with detail, it is well to remember that the unity and harmony of decorative masses often—as in the case of Gothic art—depends more or less on infinite detail. All theater-goers have not the imaginative type of mind that can profit by symbolism, and for these the mantel and the pipes of "Peter Grimm" are best, and the real tulip bulbs in his hands.

## FOREIGN DRAMA

The "Contemporary Dramatists' Series" offers two unusual plays: "Death and the Fool,"<sup>2</sup> by Hugo von Hofmannsthal, and "Advent,"<sup>3</sup> by Strindberg. The first, a drama in one act, appeared previous to publication in book form in a privately circulated magazine, *Blaetter für die Kunst* ("Art Leaflets"), issued by a group of young Viennese poets, pioneers of the Symbolist movement in art to which Hofmannsthal belongs. These Symbolists exalt impression—the reproduction of living emotions, and voice their credo in the following words: "An art for art's sake, which is therefore immediately opposed to that hackneyed and inferior movement which had its source in a mistaken conception of reality. Nor can this art occupy itself with world-reform, or with dreams of an all-round felicity—dreams that are very beautiful in their way but belong to a realm not akin to poetry." In "Death and the Fool" we have the lesson that the contemplation of death alone can teach—that time is fleeting, and what we would do and be, that we must without delay, else we will meet Death even as the Fool, with the realization that we have not been taught to anyone. The play has been translated by Elizabeth Walter. Strindberg's "Advent" is a mystery play that deals with the hidden power of divine justice.

The fifth volume of the dramatic works of Gerhardt Hauptmann<sup>4</sup> contains three symbolic and

legendary dramas. "Schluck und Jau" has a familiar theme: Two drunken vagabonds are raised to power for a brief period, then hurled back into the slough from whence they came. "And Pippa Dances" pictures the eternal quest for beauty,—the men who pursue Pippa symbolize the different phases of man's nature that in their own way seek ideal beauty. Neither the earth-nature, that seeks possession, nor the groping hunger of the mind, nor even the silence chamber of the soul may keep beauty, but to the higher principles of man the pursuit is its own reward.

In "Charlemagne's Hostage," the dramatist has drawn a remarkable picture of moral evil in the character of the Saxon hostage, Gersuind. She is the untamed fire of life burning within the guise of perfect bodily beauty. Here Hauptmann's analysis of evil approaches sublimity. He who rejects evil because it is abhorrent is damned, in that he has not tried to bring evil unto good; it is, he writes, as if one rejected Christ's teaching in regard to evil, and became less than a worthy man. Praise is due to Ludwig Lewisohn for the melodic translation of "Charlemagne's Hostage" and "Schluck und Jau." The rhythmic prose of "And Pippa Dances" is the work of Sarah Tracy Barrows.

Israel Zangwill, in his play "Modern Saints," attacks a new-old problem with vigor and daring. His thesis is a partial answer to certain questions: How can we satisfy the great "World of Claims," and render justice to the individual at the same time? On which side rests our substantial morality? If there is an infinite reasonableness even in our sins, why must Infinite Wisdom use such means to accomplish lofty ends? The scene of "Plaster Saints" is a provincial town in England; the leading character, the Reverend Rodney Vaughn. The action involves the query whether a man who sits in high places has a moral right to salve his conscience by public confession of sin, when it involves the destruction of his usefulness, and the crumbling to dust of the scaffolding of his life. Mr. Zangwill would seem to argue that the so-called baser considerations of life are sometimes better guides to action than our wild desires for purging; and that our saints are worth to us only their saintship and not a jot or a tittle more.

One thread of wisdom will give comfort to those who do not approve of the dramatist's conclusions, the fact,—which is excellently brought out,—that a man's life does not express its moral intention in its episodes of weakness. As a whole, "Plaster Saints" has a savor of French conservatism,—the sanctity of family life,—the conventions, the race-traditions must be preserved at any cost. Two previous plays, "The Melting Pot" and "The War God," are offered in uniform edition.

## A PROTEST AGAINST WAR

"War Brides,"<sup>5</sup> a play that protests against breeding men for war, has achieved great success. The scene is a peasant's cottage in the war-ridden country. The girls of the village are hastily wedding the soldiers before they are ordered to the front. Hedwig, a thoughtful young woman who has been married six months, stirs up the girls to refuse

<sup>1</sup> The New Movement in the Theater. By Sheldon Cheney. Kennerley. 303 pp. \$2.

<sup>2</sup> Death and the Fool. By Hugo von Hofmannsthal. Badger. 45 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>3</sup> Advent. By August Strindberg. Badger. 110 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>4</sup> Gerhardt Hauptmann. Dramatic Works. Volume V. Ed. by Ludwig Lewisohn Huebsch. 370 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>5</sup> Plaster Saints. By Israel Zangwill. Macmillan. 212 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>6</sup> War Brides. By Marion Craig Wentworth. Century. 71 pp. 50 cents.

to become breeding machines to give the imperial government more soldiers. She is arrested as a traitor to her country, and when the news comes that her youthful husband has been killed in battle, she shoots herself, leaving the Herr Captain who has placed her under arrest this message: "A message to the Emperor; I refuse to bear my child until you promise that there shall be no more war."

"Across the Border,"<sup>1</sup> by Beulah Marie Dix, is another war play, grim in its realism, ecstatic in its vision. A junior lieutenant goes for reinforcements through territory infested by the enemy. He is picked off by snipers, and between the time he is mortally wounded and the hour when the Red Cross orderlies find him, he passes into another world,—into the Place of the Winds,—where the Master of the House tries to teach him the real nature of war and the evil of its consequences. There, too, he meets the Dream Girl, and at the moment of death it is she who returns to the field hospital to comfort his passing soul. The lieutenant tries to give the message of the Master to his comrades, to the colonel and the surgeon, but they will not listen. He is scarcely dead before he is pulled from his cot to make way for another wounded man. The surgeon hurries the orderly with these words: "Well, we've no time to stand sentimentalizing. Get that bed clear. This is war." \* \* \* The play was given public presentation on November 14, 1914, under the direction of Mr. Holbrook Blinn.

#### A NEW ENGLAND PLAY

"Children of Earth,"<sup>2</sup> the \$10,000 prize play, is the work of Alice Brown, the well-known writer of New England stories. It was selected by three judges, Messrs. Winthrop Ames, Adolph Klauber, and Augustus Thomas, as the best play out of the 1700 submitted in the contest, and on January 12, 1915, was presented at the Booth Theater, New York. "Children of Earth" is quite in keeping with the high standard set by Miss Brown's fiction; it is a simple, moving drama of

<sup>1</sup> Across the Border. By Beulah M. Dix. Holt. 96 pp. 80 cents.

<sup>2</sup> Children of Earth. By Alice Brown. Macmillan. 212 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> Chief Contemporary Dramatists. Edited by Thomas H. Dickinson. Houghton Mifflin. 676 pp. \$2.75.



"GOOD-BY! GOOD-BY!"—FRONTISPIECE OF "WAR BRIDES" (CENTURY)

New England life that reveals to us in the characterization of its heroine, Mary Ellen, Spinster, the self-sacrifice, the delicate sturdiness, and the God-fearing self-reliance that made the women of New England in their moral and spiritual worthiness the apotheosis of all that is best in the ideals of American character.

"Chief Contemporary Dramatists"<sup>3</sup> gives twenty plays selected by Professor Thomas H. Dickinson, of the University of Wisconsin, from the modern drama of America, England, Ireland, Germany, France, Belgium, Norway, Sweden, and Russia. The inten-

tion of this volume is to compass a series of plays that will represent the abiding achievements of the present dramatic era; and each play is selected with reference to the salient characteristics of each dramatist. The appendix includes notes on authors and plays, the production of plays, and a reading list in contemporary drama.

Those who want a guide to modern plays cannot do better than to invest in Frank Wadleigh Chandler's lectures delivered at Columbia University and the University of Cincinnati, from 1911 to 1914, which are now published in book form under the title, "Aspects of Modern Drama."<sup>4</sup> They deal with themes, artistic types, and ideas, with peculiarities of national and foreign drama, and give the story of modern plays clearly and simply, without confusing discussion of technical matters. One could hardly recommend a more entertaining informational book to the general reader.

"Vaudeville,"<sup>5</sup> by Caroline Caffin, illustrated by that clever cartoonist Marius De Zayas, offers the "inside" of vaudeville, in sprightly chapters that introduce the toplineers of the variety theaters to us in their most fortunate moments.

"Earth Deities and Rhythmic Masques,"<sup>6</sup> by Mary King and Bliss Carman, will tempt the amateur to give rein to dramatic instinct; and "Everychild,"<sup>7</sup> a music play that helps children to understand music, may also be suggested.

<sup>4</sup> Aspects of Modern Drama. By F. W. Chandler. Macmillan. 494 pp. \$2.

<sup>5</sup> Vaudeville. By Caroline Caffin. Kennerley. 231 pp. \$3.

<sup>6</sup> Earth Deities and Rhythmic Masques. By Mary P. King and Bliss Carman. Kennerley. 85 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>7</sup> Everychild. By Beatrix Reynolds. Badger. 45 pp. \$1.



## INDIA AND TAGORE

IT is only recently that the inner life of India has been understood by the West. Even now the misconceptions of ignorant tourists in regard to the life, customs, and religions of the inhabitants of that vast empire too often find credence. There are six books, all published within the last few months, that can be heartily commended to those who desire not only a general survey of India, but also some contact with her ideals and religious thought. Two of these books are by Western writers, the others are the work of Rabindranath Tagore, the greatest literary genius of India to-day.

"India: Its Life and Thought,"<sup>1</sup> by John P. Jones, D.D., is beyond criticism as a book of general information couched in most felicitous phrasing. Dr. Jones gives us the fruit of thirty years of matured experience in India, with a discussion of recent developments there, the social unrest, the new nationalism, and the mighty ethical revolution that is shaking the very foundations of Indian life. This book is particularly impressive on account of its simplicity and genuineness; the author writes in the spirit of the Western saint who at the end of a half-century of work for the people of India, daily cried out: "Oh, Lord, help me to know these people and to come into intimate relations of life with them."

From this admirable outline of conditions of life in India, one may turn to a more detailed study,—*"Modern Religious Movements in India,"*<sup>2</sup> by J. N. Farquhar, literary secretary of the National Council of the Young Men's Christian Association for India and Ceylon. This book offers a complete account of religious tendencies in modern India, of new sects and the various religious organizations that have sprung up during the last century since the introduction of Western influence. The inter-penetration of the West began about 1800; the first new religious movement dates from 1828, and also the beginning of the intellectual awakening of India. Movements that favored reform, the checking of reform by the influence of old faiths, a defense of the old religions, an analysis of caste, religious nationalism, social reform, and the significance of modern movements are among the subjects discussed.

Mr. Farquhar writes that Rabindranath Tagore, the Bengali poet and mystic, is the very flower of the new nationalist movement, which embodies the present urge to substantial nation-building that is absorbing the attention of all classes at present in India. This movement as briefly summarized in a prospectus of "The Servants of India Society," is quoted: "The fact that we are Indians first, and Hindus, Mohammedans, and Parsees or Christians afterwards, is being realized in a steadily increasing measure, and the idea of a united and renovated India, marching onwards to a place among the nations of the world worthy of her great past, is no longer a mere idle dream of a few imaginative minds, but is the definitely accepted creed of those who form the brain of the community,—the educated classes of the country."

India has at last come to see, and this not more tardily than the West, that religion is an energy,

and that this energy rises and falls with the changing civilizations as do the waves of the sea with the wind; and that "no religion is worth the name that does not work for spiritual ends and produce men of high and noble character."

Tagore's spiritual message as expressed in "Sadhana,"<sup>3</sup> in "Gitanjali,"<sup>4</sup> a collection of devotional poems, in the mystic allegory "The King of the Dark Chamber," and in his translation of the "Songs of the Mohammedan Seer Kabir,"<sup>5</sup> reconciles Indian philosophy with Christianity. "Sadhana" diffuses the glory of the inner life; "The King of the Dark Chamber" explains how we can trust, love and worship a God we have never seen. "Gitanjali" (song offerings), rise into the mind like shining bubbles from the well of truth. In one of these songs Tagore prays for the awakening of his country:

"Where the mind is without fear and the head is held high;

Where knowledge is free;

Where the world has not been broken up into fragments by narrow domestic walls;

Where words come out of the depth of truth;

Where tireless striving stretches its arms towards perfection;

Where the clear stream of reason has not lost its way into the dreary desert sand of dead habit;

Where the mind is led forward by Thee into ever widening thought and action,—

Into that land of freedom, my Father, let my country awake."

Kabir was a weaver, a simple Oriental craftsman, who combined vision and industry, "even as Paul the tentmaker, Boehme the cobbler, Bunyan the tinker, and Tersteegen the ribbon-maker." He was not an ascetic saint, but a man who lived a normal life as a married man, the father of a family. His birth is recorded as in or near Benares about the year 1440. He worked to unify the so-called doctrine of the heart, a religion of love, with the formalism and intellectualism of Hindu theology and the philosophy of the Persian mystics; and the sect he founded claims a million followers in Northern India.

Tagore has given his songs their melodic English translation and Miss Evelyn Underhill has prepared an excellent preface to the volume which outlines the life and philosophy of "Kabir." A few quotations from his visions of the Infinite will reveal the quality of his genius:

"The flute of the Infinite is played without ceasing, and its sound is love.

When love renounces all limits, it reaches truth.

The moon shines in my body, but my blind eyes cannot see it:

The moon is within me, and so is the sun.

The unstruck drum of Eternity is sounded within me but my deaf ears cannot hear it.

So long as man clamors for the *I* and the *Mine*, his works are as naught:

When all the love of the *I* and the *Mine* is dead, then the work of the Lord is done.

<sup>1</sup> *Sadhana*. By Rabindranath Tagore. Macmillan. \$1.25.

<sup>4</sup> *Gitanjali*. By Rabindranath Tagore. Macmillan. 101 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>5</sup> *Songs of Kabir*. Translated by Rabindranath Tagore. Macmillan. 145 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>6</sup> *The King of the Dark Chamber*. By Rabindranath Tagore. Macmillan. 206 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>1</sup> *India: Its Life and Thought*. By John P. Jones. Macmillan. 448 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> *Modern Religious Movements in India*. By J. N. Farquhar. Macmillan. 471 pp. \$2.50.

## RECENT POETRY

"NORTH OF BOSTON," a remarkable volume of New England stories told in verse, is the work of Mr. Robert Frost, of Bethlehem, New Hampshire. They are stories such as Alice Brown or Mary Wilkins Freeman might have written in prose, narrated, with few exceptions, in unrhymed blank verse that does not hesitate to break all the by-laws of poetry and make new ones by sheer power, and a probing insight into the spiritual significance of life in the back districts of New England. Taken as a whole, the poems form a kind of epic, local, racial; the veritable granite of the bleak Atlantic hills; tales of the people in cloistered New England villages, and the fast-vanishing old stock that is dying out before the rush of foreign ingression. Farm hands, "hired girls," pathetic human leftovers, women driven to insanity by the sheer loneliness of life on the isolated farms, talk to us in the poems, and over them all hangs a spell,—a suggestion of that which has been and will never be again in New England,—the continuity and unity of a homogeneous people.

"Home Burial" is a study of a young mother's morbid grief for her first-born: "The Fear" lifts a barn-lantern to make a circle that encloses the human triangle of misery,—the dead-sea fruit of selfish desire. "Apple Picking" gives us the impression on that part of the brain that like the retina of the eye preserves for a time the images continually impressed upon it, of the harvesting of a great apple crop,—and with it the dumb wondering query as to significance of the greater human harvest of souls. Rarely has so much potential relativity been crowded into a few lines. "A Servant to Servants" portrays the monotony that kills the mind; a woman babbles on of nothings; she has been in an asylum for the insane once, and she feels its shadow again creeping over her brain. "Black Cottage," washed "velvet-black" by the rain, is a study of a deserted cottage and its dead mistress,—a type of the innocent, but grimly determined characters that,—visioning no race but their own,—held to the axiom that all men are free and equal and precipitated by slow degrees the anti-slavery agitation. In this brief poem, that is on the surface merely an impressionistic sketch, the pageant of history stretches away in the shadowy past and we hear the voices of our emancipators in muffled warning "lest we forget":

"She had her own ideas of things, the old lady.  
And she liked talk. She had seen Garrison  
And Whittier, and had her story of them.  
One wasn't long in learning that she thought  
Whatever else the Civil War was for  
It wasn't just to keep the states together,  
Nor just to free the slaves, though it did both.  
She wouldn't have believed those ends enough  
To have given outright for them all she gave,  
Her giving somehow touched the principle  
That all men are created free and equal.  
And to hear her quaint phrase—so removed  
From the world's view to-day of all those things.  
That's a hard mystery of Jefferson's.  
What did he mean? Of course the easy way  
Is to decide it simply isn't true.  
It may not be. I heard a fellow say so  
But never mind, the Welshman got it planted

Where it will trouble us a thousand years.  
Each age will have to reconsider it.

Why abandon a belief  
Merely because it ceases to be true?  
Cling to it long enough, and not a doubt  
It will turn true again, for so it goes.  
Most of the change we think we see in life  
Is due to truths being in and out of favor."

We are a little slow in this country to accept as true poetry the new books of *vers libre*. Although we have made a cult of Whitman, and study the sonorous unrhymed poetry of the Bible with relish and respectful admiration, our appreciation has been prone to stop there and erect for other adventurers in poesy the bars of inexorable laws of rhyme and meter. Leaving aside all the technical definitions that have appeared, from critics and poets recently, it is evident that poetry must be a form of truth that awakens the emotions to a fusing flame that blends sensuous appeal, intellectual excitation, and spiritual exaltation with the flow of a purer, higher current of beauty that ever escapes form and ever flies beyond definition.

The *vers libre*, of "Creation,"<sup>2</sup> a volume of Post-Impressionistic poems by Horace Holley, will survive every test of poetry. The sensuous and emotional elements of his unrhymed stanzas are blended with a fine intellectualism that here and there dilates suddenly to spread before us a vision of—"Carcassone." A casual study of his verse will teach the student of *vers libre* that the secret of this form lies in not only the rhythmic foot as opposed to the metrical foot, but in a sixth sense of the value of words. You may turn to Yeats and you will see what is meant; and if you read Isaiah and the Psalms of David, and Whitman's "Lilacs," you will be fully persuaded that true *vers libre* is for the poet who is born with the sense of the magic of words.

In Mr. Holley's "Les Morts," in "They," "The Blue Girl" and "Souls" one finds somewhat of this magic. "An Old Prayer Resaid" illustrates the quality of this collection:

"Is it too much to seek  
Among the living, one friend, one man or woman  
To stand between me and the blinding glory of  
God,  
Mirroring the pure flame to my weak eyes  
And visibly to every humble sense  
Showing the glory?  
Too much to seek?  
Is there not one among the breathing  
Who like the demi-gods of old  
Mythed to a people's heart the manner and the  
way,  
Will draw my thought and passion from itself,  
Making me forget the dangerous mystery, Soul,  
Wholly admiring, wholly intent upon a great  
nature  
Heroic, tender and calm  
I drive my prayer along the crowded street  
But meet only a passionate, wilful race  
Or here and there a wistful fellow pilgrim;  
And all the while the immanent, pitiless glory of  
God  
Burdens and breaks my heart."

<sup>1</sup> North of Boston. By Robert Frost. David Nutt. London. 145 pp. [New York: Holt. \$1.25.]

<sup>2</sup> Creation. By Horace Holley. Kennerley. 64 pp.



Professor Wiener of Harvard says that Morris Rosenfeld's "Songs of Labor"<sup>1</sup> are the finest poems since Heine. Even in the translation the lyrics of this Yiddish factory-worker have a fine simplicity and a mournful beauty that is most impressive. "The Factory" protests against making men into machines; another, "In the Wilderness," awakens memories of Shelley's "Skylark." Rose Pastor Stokes and Helena Frank have made an excellent version which preserves the rhyme and meter of the originals.

"Sonnets of a Portrait Painter,"<sup>2</sup> by Arthur Davidson Ficke, should not be overlooked by the lover of exquisite examples of poetic craft. The theme of this "sequence" is love,—that ripe nobility of spirit that moulds the dust of dead illusions into forms of changeless beauty.

"One Woman to Another,"<sup>3</sup> by Corinne Roosevelt Robinson, presents great variety of theme and treatment within the compass of forty-two short poems. The colloquial verse included in this collection does not seem to neighbor well with the poetry of the three great mysteries,—love, life, and death,—but as a whole the book shows virility and

potential beauty. The sonnets are,—poetically speaking,—the best of these poems. Mrs. Robinson is also the author of "The Call to Brotherhood."

"Phantasies,"<sup>4</sup> by Nanna Matthews Bryant, is a little green pocket-volume of poetic fragments, and bits of spontaneous singing that seem to have been written in a garden with the wind and the stars for sponsors. Utterly lacking in the self-consciousness that mars many an otherwise fine lyric, these "Phantasies" merit appreciation from all who actually love poetry for its own sake.

Other excellent volumes of verse are "The Grand Canyon," by Henry van Dyke; "Poems," by John T. McFarland; "Idylls of Greece," by Howard Sutherland; "Crack o' Dawn," by Fannie Stearns Davis; "The Lutanist," by Alice Wilson, and "Ripples," a little pamphlet of songs, by J. P. Brownlee, a young negro rhymist.

Henry Bryan Binns publishes "The Free Spirit,"<sup>5</sup> realizations of middle age, with a prose appendix on "Personal Expression," the whole forming a sequel to a former volume, "The Great Companions." The sonnet "To Arms" has great power.

## UNUSUAL BOOKS

MR. VICTOR PLARR, Mr. H. Guy Harrison, and Mr. Lawrence Gomme have entered into an agreeable conspiracy to rescue Ernest Dowson<sup>6</sup> from his oblivion and bring before us the fluidic personality that,—even as Keats,—poured out upon us for a few years vials of frankincense and myrrh, and then vanished from our ken. This has been accomplished by publishing "Dilemmas,"<sup>7</sup> Dowson's studies in sentiment, and a delightful volume of reminiscences, unpublished letters and marginalia, that presents to us a many-sided Dowson, not only the "docker" Dowson, but the "kindly, charming, boyish friend, the scholar, the exquisite poet."

"Visions and Revisions,"<sup>8</sup> by John Cowper Powys, contains seventeen essays on the "Great Masters" of literature, which are remarkable for the omission of all that is tedious and cumbersome in literary appreciations, such as pedantry, muck-raking, theorizing, and, in particular, constructive criticism. Mr. Powys has written a book of devotions to genius, a record of personal reactions, touched with fire and winged with sentiment. He covers a field from Rabelais to Shakespeare, and from Shakespeare to Whitman. The essence of each particular genius is lifted out of the sepulchral wrappings of pedantic criticism and brought

to view as a living force to which we owe love and reverence. Yet,—by way of reflection,—if you would have Mr. Powys' full value you must know the subject matter of his essays thoroughly well. His art lies in reviving for us the spirit of a "Master" whose message we have perhaps laid aside in the cobwebby chambers of the brain.

"The Ego Book,"<sup>9</sup> by Vance Thompson, belies its sub-title,—a book of selfish ideals." It is rather an explanation of the "man inside" each one of us, who mysteriously makes wishes come true and pulls the halting mind toward freedom with the strength of cosmic certitude. He explains the battle of all pioneers by re-stating the truth that "the collective soul is always armed against the individual who tries to escape from it"; and encourages us to make the kind of immortality we want, since it is within our power whether we shall sink or rise.

"The Modern Reader's Chaucer,"<sup>10</sup> gives for the first time the complete poetical works of Geoffrey Chaucer put into modern English. The version has been admirably made by John S. P. Tatlock and Percy Mackaye. The illustrations are by Warwick Goble.

The life story of a remarkable woman,—Voltaire de Cleyre<sup>11</sup>—with a biographical sketch by Hippolyte Havel, will interest those who are familiar with her propaganda work published some years ago in various magazines. She held strong and peculiar views on agnosticism, free-thought, individualism, non-resistance and direct action, and believed that her best usefulness lay in an affilia-

<sup>1</sup> Songs of Labor. By Morris Rosenfeld. Badger. 75 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>2</sup> Sonnets of a Portrait Painter. By Arthur Davidson Ficke. Kennerley. 65 pp. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> One Woman To Another. By Corinne Roosevelt Robinson. Scribners. 73 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>4</sup> Phantasies. By Nanna Matthews Bryant. Badger Press. 94 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> The Free Spirit. By Henry B. Binns. Huebsch. 175 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>6</sup> Ernest Dowson. By Victor Plarr. Gomme. 147 pp. \$1.

<sup>7</sup> Dilemmas. By Ernest Dowson. Gomme. 139 pp. \$1.

<sup>8</sup> Visions and Revisions. By John Cowper Powys. New York. G. Arnold Shaw. 298 pp. \$2.

<sup>9</sup> The Ego Book. By Vance Thompson. Dutton. 183 pp. \$1.

<sup>10</sup> The Modern Reader's Chaucer. By John S. P. Tatlock and Percy Mackaye. Macmillan. 607 pp. \$2.

<sup>11</sup> Selected Works of Voltairine de Cleyre. New York. Mother Earth Publishing Co. 471 pp. \$1.50.

tion with Anarchistic theory. She was born in Michigan, in 1866, of French-American stock. She died in Chicago in 1912. As a human document this book is unique.

That book to which Anatole France owes so large a debt, "Comte de Gabalis,"<sup>1</sup> by the Abbe N. de Montfaucon de Villars, has at last been rendered from the French into English with an extensive commentary printed on alternating pages with the translation. Many literary men have used this famous book. Sir Edward Lytton based certain portions of his novel "Zanoni," on this cryptic work. Alexander Pope mentions it in the dedication of the "Rape of the Lock," and Anatole France has transferred certain portions into "At the Sign of the Reine Pedauque." Man's place in nature; the divine principle in man; children of the sun; initiates, prophets, seers, sylphs, gnomes, salamanders, ancient mysteries and Merlin's prophecy of universal peace and enlightenment are among the subjects of the Comte's fascinating discourse.

"Practical Mysticism,"<sup>2</sup> by Evelyn Underhill, defines mysticism as the art of union with reality. "The mystic is a person who has attained that union in greater or less degree; or who aims at or believes in such attainment." The author thinks that a study of mysticism will prove a practical as well as a spiritual blessing, teaching life's true proportion, its inner meaning and unfolding the soul to a vision of its ultimate powers and possibilities. A book that cannot fail to be helpful to all who are struggling for wider expression and deeper content.

"The Mystery of Pain"<sup>3</sup> is a reprint of that little classic by James Hinton, that brings comfort and solace in the knowledge that pain has a purpose greater than we are usually able to perceive.

One of the most acceptable books for young people is Selma Lagerlöf's idyllic story "The Legend of the Sacred Image,"<sup>4</sup> which teaches us the efficacy of simple faith. It is translated by Velma Howard.

## THE SEASON'S FICTION

TWO of the spring's novels to which we may refer again are deeply concerned with the big industrial problems of our day. "The Turmoil,"<sup>5</sup> by Booth Tarkington, shows in broad outline some of the fruitage of the spirit of modern materialism as it has come to its own in the Middle West, while "The Harbor,"<sup>6</sup> by Ernest Poole, is a strong, well-sustained analysis of the labor movement in its latest phases, as exemplified in the lives of a writer and a union organizer.

Mr. Gilbert Cannan has written several novels around a single theme—the rebellion of the younger generation against conventional morals. "Young Earnest,"<sup>7</sup> like "Old Mole," the novel that preceded it, pictures the passage of a man who has been bred in a provincial environment through various experiences, all of which utterly fail to contribute anything toward a solution of certain problems of human relationships. He takes pride in facts, and they are all right; it is their relation to life that seems muddled. Horrified at life's illusions, at the base coin she forces upon us, the novelist lays the blame at the feet of a vastly indifferent Dame Nature, who uses human instincts very much as she pleases. Mr. Cannan's felicitous powers of expression, his extraordinary power of holding attention, are displayed to advantage even in literary material that essentially falls below the standards of praiseworthy fiction.

"Pelle the Conqueror"<sup>8</sup> is the second volume in

the series of four Danish novels that are to picture the life of a modern labor leader. Each book is a complete novel in itself; the first, the boyhood of Pelle; the second presents his young manhood in a small Danish town. The work is partly the autobiography of the author, Martin Anderson Nexø, a leading man of letters in Denmark. The first volume of this series, "Boyhood," although published only seven years ago, has become a classic. The style is descriptive, easy, vigorous, and honest. Pelle tells just what he actually sees, and takes reality at his own valuation. The motivation of his future career is everywhere apparent in this second volume that covers the period of his apprenticeship to life.

"The Second Blooming,"<sup>9</sup> by W. L. George, contrasts the careers of three women who find, after several years of marriage and family life, that a "second blooming," a final spurt to lay bold hands upon adventure, is necessary for their satisfaction and development. One woman immerses herself in a romantic love affair, the second finds her career in politics; the third, Mary, who loves children, takes motherhood for her profession and has a hive full of babies. The novelist brings the three women together in the final chapter to discuss the durability of their satisfactions. They decide that marriage means finding something to do; that laziness and just settling down never bring women any good; that they must take up something as a vocation,—love, motherhood, art, business, philanthropy, or politics,—in order to become bigger and finer people.

"The Sword of Youth,"<sup>10</sup> by James Lane Allen, preserves the gentle charm of atmosphere that has given many of his novels wide reading. Mrs. Sumner, a characteristic Kentucky mother, has given four sons and her husband to service in the Southern Army. Joseph, the youngest, waits until he is seventeen before he announces his intention of joining the army. His mother quarrels with

<sup>1</sup> Comte de Gabalis. By the Abbe de Montfaucon de Villars. New York. Harry B. Haines. 352 pp. \$2.50.

<sup>2</sup> Practical Mysticism. By Evelyn Underhill. Dutton. 169 pp. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> The Mystery of Pain. By James Hinton. Kennerley. 109 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> The Legend of the Sacred Image. By Selma Lagerlöf. Translated by Velma Howard. Holt. 44 pp. 50 cents.

<sup>5</sup> The Turmoil. By Booth Tarkington. Harpers. 349 pp., ill. \$1.35.

<sup>6</sup> The Harbor. By Ernest Poole. Macmillan. 387 pp. \$1.40.

<sup>7</sup> Young Earnest. By Gilbert Cannan. Appletons. 390 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>8</sup> Pelle the Conqueror. By Martin Anderson Nexø. Translated by Bernard Miall. Holt. 330 pp. \$1.40.

<sup>9</sup> The Second Blooming. By W. L. George. Little, Brown. 438 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>10</sup> The Sword of Youth. By James Lane Allen. Century. 261 pp. \$1.25.



him over his decision, and he goes to his sweetheart, Lucy, for consolation. Later, when his mother lies dying and sends for her son, he becomes a deserter to answer the call of her distress. He arrives too late and turns back, expecting to be shot for desertion. As it happens he is pardoned, and the book ends with peace, and the reunion of the lovers in the flowery fields of old Kentucky.

"Amarilly of Clothes-Line Alley"<sup>1</sup> is a youthful Mrs. Wiggs, with all the charm and true American ingenuity that characterize that perennially popular character. "Amarilly" makes her debut on the first page of this entertaining narrative, as the assistant scrub-lady at the Barlow Stock Theater. She is little and wan, and quite homely, but she has unbounded ambition and great ideas of the trappings of respectability. She isn't the least bit of a goody-goody sort, and we find that she is actually going to college when the book ends—with all the reader's approval for her

clean grit, and a little gratitude to favoring circumstance.

The story of a tired little "Liberry" teacher who thought she would marry anybody as long as she didn't have to associate with him,—if she could only have a real rose garden,—has been woven into a romantic novel. "The Rose Garden Husband,"<sup>2</sup> a most delightful kind of grown-up fairy-tale that makes all the "Liberry" teacher's dreams come true.

One of America's foremost humorists, George Fitch, gives us in "Homeburg Memories,"<sup>3</sup> a most amusing book, sketches of life in a small country town, that has one train a day, one policeman, a volunteer fire department, hired girls instead of servants, a "marine band," and a weekly newspaper. There are touches of satire, dashes of sentiment, and several good laughs in this farcical treatment of American life in a town of twenty-five hundred inhabitants.

## OFFENDERS AND THEIR PUNISHMENT

"THE INDIVIDUAL DELINQUENT,"<sup>4</sup> by William Healy, M.D., is a text-book of criminology based on a thorough study of the causes and conditions of criminal tendencies as revealed in the Psychopathic Institute of the Chicago Juvenile Court. This institute was organized six years ago by Miss Julia C. Lathrop, now the chief of the Children's Bureau at Washington. It has had the encouragement of judges and other officials and citizens interested in juvenile delinquency, and the research that it has already accomplished has proven of great value. This work by Dr. Healy, the director of the institute, has assumed the scope of a reference book. The theory from which it has developed is that the child is father of the man in that the criminal life is entered upon in childhood, and that a knowledge of criminal tendencies on the part of youthful offenders is fundamental to an understanding of the whole subject.

Miss Winifred Louise Taylor gives in "The Man Behind the Bars"<sup>5</sup> vivid descriptions of the conditions under which the convicts in our State prisons exist. Miss Taylor's point of view is well indicated by a sentence in her preface: "Doubtless the key to my own position is the fact that I have always studied these prisoners as men; and I tried not to obscure my vision by looking at them through their crimes." The entire book is an unanswerable plea for a change in our methods of dealing with criminals.

Less useful and suggestive, perhaps, as a contribution to criminology, but still intensely interesting as a bit of personal experience, is "Prisons and Prisoners,"<sup>6</sup> by Constance Lytton and Jane

Warton, spinster. As propaganda for militant suffragism the book will not go far in the United States, but in so far as it discloses the effect of prison life upon the individual prisoner it has its value.

Peter Clark Macfarlane's collection of human documents entitled "Those Who Have Come Back"<sup>7</sup> tells us how people taken from real life,—criminals, victims of drugs, of liquor, and of social crimes,—have been enabled to work out their own salvation. There is encouragement in this book for every "down-and-out."

Mr. Raymond B. Fosdick, formerly Commissioner of Accounts in New York City, recently spent more than a year and a half observing the police departments in twenty-two European cities. The result of his study is a volume of 450 pages, describing the functions of the European police forces, the relations of the police departments in European cities to the state, and the detailed organization of the departments.<sup>8</sup> No book quite like this, covering the same ground, has ever before appeared in English. It is invaluable as a compendium of useful information and as an exposition of the various theories and systems which have been developed in dealing with criminals.

An extremely useful manual which has the unreserved endorsement of Mr. Fosdick is "Police Practise and Procedure,"<sup>9</sup> by Inspector Cornelius F. Cahalane, of the New York Police Department. This work analyzes the policeman's duties and the extent and limitations of his powers with reference to the enforcement of the laws and ordinances, and also discusses the ways of criminals and the approved methods of circumventing them.

<sup>1</sup> Amarilly of Clothes-Line Alley. By Belle K. Maniates. Little, Brown. 279 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> The Rose Garden Husband. By Margaret Widdemer. Lippincott. 207 pp. ill. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> Homeburg Memories. By George Fitch. Little, Brown. 302 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>4</sup> The Individual Delinquent. By William Healy. Little, Brown. 830 pp. \$5.

<sup>5</sup> The Man Behind the Bars. By Winifred Louise Taylor. Scribners. 302 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>6</sup> Prisons and Prisoners. By Constance Lytton and Jane Warton. Doran. 337 pp. \$1.

<sup>7</sup> Those Who Have Come Back. By Peter Clark Macfarlane. Little, Brown. 269 pp. ill. \$1.35.

<sup>8</sup> European Police Systems. By Raymond B. Fosdick. Century. 442 pp. \$1.30.

<sup>9</sup> Police Practise and Procedure. By Cornelius F. Cahalane. Dutton. 241 pp., ill. \$1.50.

## BOOKS ABOUT THE PACIFIC COAST

THOSE who go to the Pacific coast this year will not find many traces of the old frontier that has been the theme of so much picturesque writing in years past. If they leave the beaten track, however, they will find conditions here and there to suggest the mining camps that Bret Harte wrote about half a century ago. Something may be seen, too, of the old-time ranch life. But the traveler who never leaves the railroad will miss all this. For the special benefit of the motorist, Mr. E. Alexander Powell has given in "The End of the Trail"<sup>1</sup> a comprehensive survey of what may be seen on a road journey from the Mexican line northward through California, Oregon, and Washington, into British Columbia. Before the days of the motor car this journey was seldom taken, and in a sense Mr. Powell is himself the pioneer of the route, but his graphic description of the places and the people that he encountered, the social, economic, and political conditions of the country, is almost certain to stimulate many other travelers to make the same tour. Particularly during the coming season, when the usual trip to Europe will have to be postponed, many Americans will find in such scenic explorations as this a fresh and abiding interest.

In "Byways Around San Francisco Bay,"<sup>2</sup> Mr. W. E. Hutchinson outlines, for the benefit of the visitor to the Panama-Pacific Exposition, some of the attractive journeys of a few miles each that may be taken in all directions from San Francisco as a center.

Let no one who makes the journey to California fail to provide himself with a copy of "Yosemite and Its High Sierra,"<sup>3</sup> by John H. Williams. With four-color plates from paintings by Chris Jørgensen, more than 200 half-tone reproductions

of photographs, and convenient maps, this volume presents for the first time the scenery of the Yosemite National Park as a whole.



A STREET IN SAN FRANCISCO'S "CHINATOWN"  
(From "Byways Around San Francisco Bay")

## EXPOSITORY AND REFERENCE BOOKS

PROFESSOR GEORGE TRUMBULL LADD gives us a vital contribution to modern philosophical literature in "What Can I Know?"<sup>4</sup> an inquiry into truth, its nature, the means of attainment, and its relations to practical life. The author believes that if we are not beguiled by considering the social mass as an entity that has certain needs and desires, but devote our efforts to the individual, we shall achieve much toward the progress of our Utopian ideals. This work leads straight to the queries: What is the use of knowing? What is the real value of knowledge? What is the meaning of Truth? While the ultimate answer to the questions must rest within the Unknowable, Professor Ladd gives us an inspiring exposition of what may be discovered to the knower who will think things out for himself in-

stead of taking things for granted; who will raise his individualism to the highest power compatible with service to his fellow-men,—into a kind of Pragmatic Idealism that rationalizes the entire gamut of the knowable into harmonious relationship,—ever in flux,—with the Unknown, the Infinite, and the Absolute.

A most excellent non-technical statement of the salient features of Bergson's philosophy is presented in Professor Emil Carl Wilm's book of exposition and criticism, entitled "Henri Bergson: A Study in Radical Evolution."<sup>5</sup> It is a book admirably suited for text-book purposes, and to the needs of non-philosophical readers who desire the gist of this new philosophy and its bearings on current ideas and interests.

Questions that have arisen since the outbreak of the great war have brought out more clearly than ever the comparative need of an up-to-date compendium of international law. Several of the best

<sup>1</sup>The End of the Trail. By E. Alexander Powell. Scribners. 463 pp., ill. \$3.

<sup>2</sup>Byways Around San Francisco Bay. By W. E. Hutchinson. New York: The Abingdon Press. 184 pp., ill. \$1.

<sup>3</sup>Yosemite and Its High Sierra. By John H. Williams. Tacoma and San Francisco: John H. Williams. 147 pp., ill. \$1.50.

<sup>4</sup>What Can I Know? By George Trumbull Ladd. Longmans, Green. 308 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>5</sup>Henri Bergson: A Study in Radical Evolution. By Emil C. Wilm. Sturgis & Walton. 193 pp. \$1.25.



treatises on this subject have been rendered, to a certain extent, obsolete by changes that have taken place as the results of the Hague conferences and decisions, and of the London Naval Conference of 1909. To meet this need Admiral Charles H. Stockton, U. S. N., retired, has prepared a volume entitled "Outlines of International Law,"<sup>1</sup> which is well fitted to serve as a text-book of the subject in colleges. In this book all the significant new developments of the law of nations are fully treated. New conditions arising from maritime and aerial inventions and the construction of the Suez and Panama canals are set forth in their proper relation to the general theme. Admiral Stockton has had ample practical experience in dealing with special problems arising in international relations and has long been a consulting authority, as well as lecturer and instructor, on the subject. He was the first representative of the United States at the London Conference in 1909.

"A Decade of American Government in the Philippines"<sup>2</sup> has been prepared as an additional chapter to the third edition of the "History of the Philippines," by David P. Barrows, first published in 1903. It is separately printed for

the convenience of those desiring a brief historical review of the events of the last ten years. Dr. Barrows, who is now Professor of Political Science in the University of California, was for six years Director of Education for the Philippines.

Among the occasional books that fairly deserve to be characterized as "monumental" (a word that is much overworked in book reviews) is "A Grammar of the Greek New Testament in the Light of Historical Research,"<sup>3</sup> by Professor A. T. Robertson, of Louisville, Kentucky. Those Greek students who in their college days thought of their "Hadley" and "Goodwin" as formidable, would be astounded at the bulk of this new grammar of New Testament Greek, with its 1400 large pages, containing not only a complete treatise on the syntax of the language, but chapters on the historical method itself, word formation, orthography and phonetics, and various allied topics. One is quite ready to credit the author's statement made in his preface that this work has been the chief task of the past twelve years of his life. Advanced students, teachers, and preachers have been placed under a lasting obligation to Professor Robertson for his scholarly work.

## WAR BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

**The Prussian Hath Said in His Heart.** By Cecil Chesterton. New York: Laurence J. Gomme. 219 pp. \$1.

A cogent and,—some would say,—an extreme statement of the evils of German militarism by a brilliant English writer who has recently visited the United States.

**The New (German) Testament.** By Anthony Hope Hawkins. Appletons. 65 pp.

In this little book the English novelist analyzes Germany's war creed and compares German and English rules of action to the advantage of the latter.

**The Kaiser 1859-1914.** By Stanley Shaw. Macmillan. 251 pp. 40 cents.

An abridgment and revision of a larger work entitled "William of Germany," published in 1913. An additional chapter deals with the Kaiser's relation to the war.

**The German Emperor as Shown in His Public Utterances.** By Christian Gauss. Scribners. 329 pp., ill. \$1.25.

A most interesting selection from the Kaiser's speeches, covering almost every phase of imperial politics.

**How Belgium Saved Europe.** By Charles Sarolea. Lippincott. 227 pp. \$1.

An "inside" account of the heroic Belgian defense, with an exposition of its moral significance. Dr. Sarolea, who is a native of Belgium, was for twelve years Belgian consul at Edinburgh and recently has served as war correspondent of the London *Daily Chronicle*.

**German World Policies.** By Paul Rohrbach. Macmillan. 243 pp. \$1.25.

A constructive work by a German "moderate" who has had great influence among his own people. The national ideals are clearly set forth in a spirit that suggests another side of the German character from that presented in the pages of Bernhardt.

**Can Germany Win? The Aspirations and Resources of Its People.** By an American. Putnam. 163 pp. \$1.

An American who repeatedly visited Germany both before and after the outbreak of the war has written this book to put England on her guard against hasty conclusions as to the exhaustion of German resources.

**Germany, France, Russia, and Islam.** By Heinrich von Treitschke. Putnam. 336 pp. \$1.50.

The first English translation of essays written between 1871 and 1895 by the German historian whose influence on his times has only become evident since his death.

**The Viereck-Chesterton Debate on "Whether the Cause of Germany or that of the Allied Powers is Just."** New York: The Fatherland Corporation. 31 pp. 10 cents.

The report of a public debate held in New York City on the evening of January 17.

<sup>1</sup> Outlines of International Law. By Charles H. Stockton. Scribners. 616 pp. \$2.50.

<sup>2</sup> American Government in the Philippines. By David P. Barrows. Yonkers: World Book Company. 66 pp., ill. 60 cents.

<sup>3</sup> A Grammar of the Greek New Testament in the Light of Historical Research. By A. T. Robertson. Doran. 1,400 pp. \$5.

**Germany Embattled: An American Interpretation.** By Oswald Garrison Villard. Scribners. 181 pp. \$1.

Mr. Villard, himself of German descent, writes in perfect good temper and with a disposition to be fair. One of the essays in this book,—"The Two Germanys,"—appeared originally in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* (September, 1914), and that article, much commended at the time of its appearance, may be said to have struck the keynote of the volume.

**What I Found Out in the House of a German Prince.** By an English-American Governor. Stokes. 241 pp. \$1.25.

The experiences of a young woman of English birth (the granddaughter of an American admiral) as governess in the family of a German prince. She was presented to such visitors as the Kaiser, the Crown Prince, General von Bernhardt, the Krupps, Count Zeppelin, and General von Kluck, and her conversations with these celebrities revealed in various ways the attitude of the German autocracy towards England in the years preceding the war.

**Paths of Glory: Impressions of War Written at and Near the Front.** By Irvin S. Cobb. Doran. 414 pp. \$1.50.

A reprint of Mr. Cobb's graphic articles in the *Saturday Evening Post*, of Philadelphia.

**The Audacious War.** By Clarence W. Barron. Houghton Mifflin. 192 pp. \$1.

An American business man's observations on the commercial and financial causes of the war, the effect of protective tariffs, and the tremendous cost in men and money.

**Kitchener, Organizer of Victory.** By Harold Begbie. Houghton Mifflin. 112 pp., ill. \$1.25.

A character sketch of the British War Lord by the brilliant English writer.

**In a Moment of Time.** By Reginald Wright Kauffman. Moffat, Yard. 272 pp., ill. \$1.

Not a story of military movements, but a record of "Things Seen on the Bread-Line of Belgium."

## EDUCATION

**Child Training.** By V. M. Hillyer. Century. 299 pp., ill. \$1.60.

This book is addressed particularly to the parents of children under seven. It outlines a system of training and gives detailed programs that may be profitably followed by children under school age.

**School Discipline.** By William Chandler Bagley. Macmillan. 259 pp. \$1.25.

As might naturally be assumed from its title, this is a book intended primarily for teachers. Adherence to its principles in school government would tend to make discipline less and less a "problem."

**Health Work in the Schools.** By Ernest Bryant Hoag and Lewis M. Terman. Houghton Mifflin. 321 pp. \$1.60.

Health supervision in American schools may be said to be still in its infancy. The intelligent coöperation of the grade teacher is all-important in this work and the authors of the present volume have had that fact chiefly in mind.

**School Hygiene.** By Leo Burgerstein. Stokes. 188 pp., ill. \$1.

A brief manual (translated from the German) by one of the world's foremost authorities on the subject. Dr. Burgerstein, of Vienna, not only knows the up-to-date methods familiar in the more advanced European countries, but is equally familiar with the problems facing the small country school in America.

**Education Through Play.** By Henry S. Curtis. Macmillan. 359 pp., ill. \$1.50.

A useful study of children's play in its practical and cultural aspects by a man who has made this subject his hobby for many years. A portion of the material has already appeared in the form of contributions to this *REVIEW* by Dr. Curtis.

**Principles of Secondary Education.** Edited by Paul Monroe. Macmillan. 790 pp. \$1.90.

Discussions by specialists of the high-school curriculum in its various aspects.

**Principles and Methods in Commercial Education.** By Joseph Kahn and Joseph J. Klein. Macmillan. 439 pp. \$1.40.

A text-book for teachers, students, and business men.

**A Handbook of Vocational Education.** By Joseph S. Taylor. Macmillan. 225 pp., ill. \$1.

The author of this work holds that vocational training should be made supplementary to the ordinary cultural studies, that it should be begun after the completion of the pupil's thirteenth year, and that separate schools should be maintained for those already employed.

**Montessori Children.** By Carolyn Sherwin Bailey. Holt. 188 pp., ill. \$1.25.

In this little book Miss Bailey gives the record of a dozen individual children whom she observed under the Montessori training. The pronounced aptitudes and faults of these children are described, together with the measures taken by Dr. Montessori in each case to correct the fault or develop the aptitude.

**The Wayward Child.** By Hannah Kent Schoff. Bobbs-Merrill. 274 pp. \$1.

A study of the causes of crime from the standpoint of first-hand acquaintance with the criminals themselves. Mrs. Schoff secured from a large number of men and women in jails and prisons frank statements of their early careers and then made direct visits to many of these prisoners for the purpose of gaining their confidence and learning from them what they considered to be the influences that led them into delinquency.



# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—WAR'S EFFECT ON AMERICAN SECURITIES

WHEN the war broke out it was widely feared that hard-pressed Europe might try to dump back upon this country a large part of the \$6,000,000,000 of American securities owned in England, France, Germany, Holland, and Belgium. Our stock exchanges remained closed more than four months to guard against this possible avalanche. How strange, then, is the sound of the following sentence from a recent publication of the National City Bank of New York:

We have reached the situation where instead of being concerned lest our securities may be returned too fast we are beginning to be concerned because they do not come fast enough to keep the exchanges in normal condition.

This changed attitude lies in the fact that exports of commodities from this country have become so great as to put Europe in our debt, heavily enough to upset foreign exchange operations as gravely as at the beginning of the war. The difference is that whereas in August a dollar was dangerously depreciated as compared with English money, an English pound has recently become just as badly depreciated as compared with American dollars. As the delicate mechanism of international exchange always tends to recover its equilibrium, or approach the normal, it has been generally expected that this country would gradually absorb American securities heretofore held abroad and perhaps take over English holdings of Canadian and South American securities as well, this apparently being the only way to restore a balance.

While there is always a tendency for capital, timid but elusive, to desert countries at war for those at peace, yet there is no question that European investments in this country are being silently but steadily returned in large quantity. Last August people feared this process would be sudden and overwhelming. Instead it is proving slow, quiet, and dragging. The maintenance of minimum prices for stocks on the New York Stock Exchange by a Committee of Five, instead of leaving the market to the free play of supply and demand, would long ago have

been done away with had it not been for the drip, drip of foreign liquidation. Anyone who cares to see this process in actual operation need only watch the newspaper quotations for bonds. Usually when the sign "s 20" or "s 10" appears after a transaction one may be fairly certain it is for foreign account.

The constitution of the New York Stock Exchange provides that business may be conducted in any one of four ways: "cash," which involves payment on the same day; "regular way," which involves payment prior to 2.15 the next afternoon; "at three days," which requires payment in three days' time; and "buyer's or seller's option," by which payment may be made at any time from four to sixty days, as the buyer or seller elects. The writer, almost exactly a year ago, was preparing a lecture on the Stock Exchange and asked a member of the governing committee to explain in detail the last of the four methods. The broker replied by saying it would be a waste of time to mention it in a lecture because it was obsolete. But the war has revived the practise, and "seller 20" usually means that a far-away owner wants 20 days to get his bonds across the Atlantic.

A compilation covering the period from January 28 to March 15 showed that by the "seller 20" option alone \$8,000,000 bonds had been disposed of. In one day in March \$500,000 bonds changed hands "seller 20." Very large blocks of foreign-owned securities,—one authority has placed the total at a billion dollars,—instead of being held on the other side, are left in charge of New York banking houses, presumably to save trouble as well as to escape taxation, and when sales from these piles are made they do not carry labels on the Stock Exchange serving to establish their identity. Central Pacific 4s and Northern Pacific 3s and 4s have suffered most from the foreign selling which has been labelled. It has always been known that Central Pacific bonds and Northern Pacific bonds and stock were extensively held abroad, although there are no exact figures. Lord Strathcona, who died in London on January 21, 1914, was credited with owning 37,800 shares of Northern Pacific stock, and other early English or Canadian associates

of James J. Hill have, without question, held great blocks of Northern Pacific securities. Of Canadian Pacific's \$260,000,000 of stock nearly all is held in Europe, and a majority of the 65,000 owners live in Germany, France, and Belgium. Enormous quantities of Union and Southern Pacific stock also are held abroad, but no exact figures are obtainable. For several of the other great corporations the official figures of June 30 last are known. Of course great changes may have taken place since:

	Total Stock	Owned in Europe
U. S. Steel Corp., com.	\$508,302,500	\$122,404,500 <sup>1</sup>
Am. Car & Foundry.	360,281,100	27,514,200
U. S. Steel Corp., pfd.	449,265,700	74,490,442
Pennsylvania .....	228,679,567	75,019,000
Natl. Rys., Mexico...	180,000,000	62,852,400
Southern Railway....	140,835,600	59,987,700
Rock Island Co.....	309,985,300	58,910,000
Atchison .....	212,000,000	39,000,000
Baltimore & Ohio....	230,099,450	38,127,500
Great Northern .....	47,000,000	25 513,300
Am. Smelt. Securities.	51,000,000	22,205,500
Kansas City Southern.	43,086,806	22,159,100
Cities Service .....	225,581,000	21,212,900
New York Central..	233,130,300	17,185,400
St. Paul .....	344,672,300	12,479,900
American Telephone.	100,000,000	9,034,700
Am. Smelt. & Ref....	60,000,000	8,014,800

#### *New York Central*

A rather remarkable piece of financing is the offer of the New York Central Railroad to its stockholders to take at par \$100,000,000 twenty-year 6 per cent. convertible debenture bonds. The company had a large amount of short-term paper coming due, and it is proposed to fund this temporary debt with the twenty-year debentures. It seems most unfortunate, however, that this old-established property should be obliged to pay 6 per cent. for twenty years, or 120 per cent. of the principal sum. A year ago a new refunding and improvement mortgage was created, and it was understood that further new financing would be carried on by means of bond issues under the new mortgage. However, if the merger of the New York Central and the Lake Shore turns out well and New York Central stock advances in the next few years owners of the new convertible 6s will exchange their bonds for stock, and the property will naturally be better off than if it had a long-term bond about its neck. It is to be hoped that New York

Central finances will soon begin to feel the proclaimed benefits of the merger. If the company's affairs continue to become more rather than less complicated, doubters will be comparing it with the New Haven.

#### *Pennsylvania*

The report of the Pennsylvania Railroad for 1914 shows the lowest percentage earned on the half billion dollars of stock in more than a decade. After paying \$30,000,000 (6 per cent.) in dividends there remained a surplus for the year of only about \$4,000,000. The Pennsylvania is fortunate in having a great deal of fat to draw upon, undistributed earnings in previous years having been much larger. It is in a far better position than most other railroads to pull through a hard period.

#### *Southern Pacific*

Recent low prices for all Southern Pacific securities may be accounted for by a number of causes. For the seventh time the Government has brought suit to recover oil lands which it maintains were illegally patented. The value of these lands is placed by the complaint at \$100,000,000, but the company does not include them in its list of assets. The Government has also brought suit to compel the Southern Pacific to give up ownership of the Central Pacific, and this is a serious factor. Foreign selling of the stock has probably kept prices down, and also the fact that for the last six months of 1914 net revenues after paying taxes were \$17,000,000 against \$19,500,000 for the same period in 1913. But the chief cause of the decline in the stocks and bonds of this company has been the necessity of finding an entirely new market for half of its stock since 1913. In that year the Union Pacific was obliged to sell \$126,650,000 of Southern Pacific shares by order of the U. S. Supreme Court. A total of \$38,292,400 was taken by the Pennsylvania Railroad in exchange for Baltimore & Ohio stock. The Pennsylvania's recent annual report does not show that any of this has been sold, but the remaining \$88,357,600, which had been owned by the Union Pacific, was sold by that company to individual Southern Pacific stockholders, who have been at liberty to resell. Thus there has been a great weight upon the market. In course of time many of these depressing influences should be removed, and for that reason the company's bonds at least should prove attractive at their present low prices to conservative investors.

<sup>1</sup> Between June 30 and December 31, 1914, European holdings of United States Steel common decreased by 81,183 shares, and the preferred fell off 3,375 shares. Most of the common sold, 77,891 shares, belonged to English holders. England, however, continued to own 710,621 shares, or \$71,062,100 of the stock, on December 31.



## II.—INVESTMENT INQUIRIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 625.—ABOUT NEW YORK CITY BONDS IN PARTICULAR AND MUNICIPALS IN GENERAL

I have seen statements to the effect that New York City a few months ago was about to default on its bonds, but was saved from this situation by support given by various banks in purchasing new 6 per cent. bonds. I know little about financial affairs, but always thought municipal bonds to be as safe as anything one might buy. Will you please tell me if a city can really refuse to pay its debts, and in what way banks can help a city in issuing new bonds. I have some money to invest, and would like municipal securities, if I could get any that would net 6 per cent.

It is very rare, indeed, that one hears nowadays of a default on municipal bonds. Such securities, sometimes referred to as "little governments," are, as a class, strictly conservative investments. There is scarcely another type of investment which, as a matter of fact, has a better record for safety.

The more or less disturbing statements you refer to about New York City bonds were in reality no reflection upon the fundamental integrity of the city's obligations, and we consider it rather unfortunate that the word "default" should have been so freely used in connection with the peculiar financial situation in which the city found itself shortly after the outbreak of the war. Certain outstanding obligations fell due at that time, and it so happened that they were for the most part held by foreign investors. By reason of the complete upset in the exchanges, the city had difficulty in providing means to meet this indebtedness promptly. It became necessary for it to borrow the money from a group of banks and to pay for it a rate of interest in excess of 6 per cent., whereas in normal times it is able to borrow at from  $4\frac{1}{4}$  to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

New York City's financial methods, in many respects, are perhaps open to a great deal of criticism, but her bonds are safe. They can never be outstanding under the present laws in excess of 10 per cent. of the assessed valuation of all the taxable property in the city. And the outstanding amount at the present time is more than covered by the value of the property which the city itself owns, free of taxes.

We believe you are to be commended for your interest in municipal bonds as investments. You are likely to find it rather difficult to obtain on this type of security as high a rate of income as 6 per cent., although occasionally bonds of small and little-known municipalities are offered on that basis.

### No. 626.—ARE STOCKS SUITABLE FOR INVESTMENT OF A WIDOW'S FUNDS?

I beg to ask what you think of such stocks as Pennsylvania, New York Central and other railroads, Utah and similar coppers, and United States Steel preferred and similar industrial issues, as investments for a widow at present prices. She would not be dependent on the income from such investments being absolutely steady, as would be the case if the investment were in bonds, since she has other sources of income. But she could not afford to lose any of the money invested. What I mean is that, while she is prepared to take a little risk on the interest, she would not care to invest in anything that was risky as to the principal.

Risk of income and risk of principal are inseparable, especially in the category of stocks, and where risk is present you have a speculative security rather than an investment. Therefore, we have grave doubts about the advisability of your purchasing stocks as a means of employing a widow's funds. We should certainly consider it

unwise to put all of the money into this type of security. If the circumstances seemed to be such as to justify using a part of the fund in that way, we believe it ought to go into stocks of the very highest grade,—the old established dividend-payers, showing the greatest amount of market stability. Frankly, we do not consider that New York Central, Utah Copper, or United States Steel are suitable in your case. Pennsylvania might be considered under these circumstances, although it is necessary to point out that during the last year the road earned a relatively small margin above its dividend requirements. Among the other solidly established railroad stocks, we like Delaware & Hudson, which ordinarily has its dividend covered by a very good margin, which pays 9 per cent. per annum, and which is now quoted to yield nearly  $6\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. net on the investment.

Among the industrial issues, we think we should pick those of companies whose products are commodities of general consumption,—something in the nature of a necessity. A good stock of that kind is American Sugar preferred, paying dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. per annum, and now quoted to yield about 6.40 per cent.

To refer again in another way to what you say about the necessity of avoiding everything that happens to be risky as to principal, you understand, of course, that when you put money into stocks, your only recourse is to the market, if you are confronted with the necessity of turning the investment into cash. Have you stopped to consider that, if that necessity should happen to arise at a time when the market was demoralized and prices for securities in general were unusually low, you would inevitably be confronted with loss?

No, we believe that in investing a widow's funds, one should confine selections for the most part to sound bonds and carefully chosen mortgages, even at the sacrifice of income.

### No. 627.—SOUTHERN PACIFIC

What do you think of Southern Pacific stock? I cannot understand why it should sell so low. It has been at a very low figure for some time. Is it that the "wise ones" anticipate a passing or reduction of the dividend? In this day of decreasing net earnings, one might expect a reduction, perhaps, but that would hardly account for the stock's persisting to sell where it does; would it? I have some of the stock that I paid 120 for. Which do you think better, Delaware & Hudson or American Car & Foundry preferred?

We regard Southern Pacific as a reasonably attractive business man's purchase at present prices. The decline in the price of these shares seems to have been due in part to the general unsettlement of the financial and investment markets these last few months; and in part to a feeling among the well-informed on railroad affairs that the road might have difficulty in finding a satisfactory solution for the traffic problems with which it was confronted by the opening of the Panama Canal.

There was, indeed, some fear, a few weeks ago, that the directors might decide to put the stock on a lower dividend basis, at least for a time, but since then the decision has been reached to maintain it on the 6 per cent. basis. It may be said, also, that the outlook for business in the territory which the road serves is better now.

As an investment proposition, we believe Delaware & Hudson preferable to American Car & Foundry preferred.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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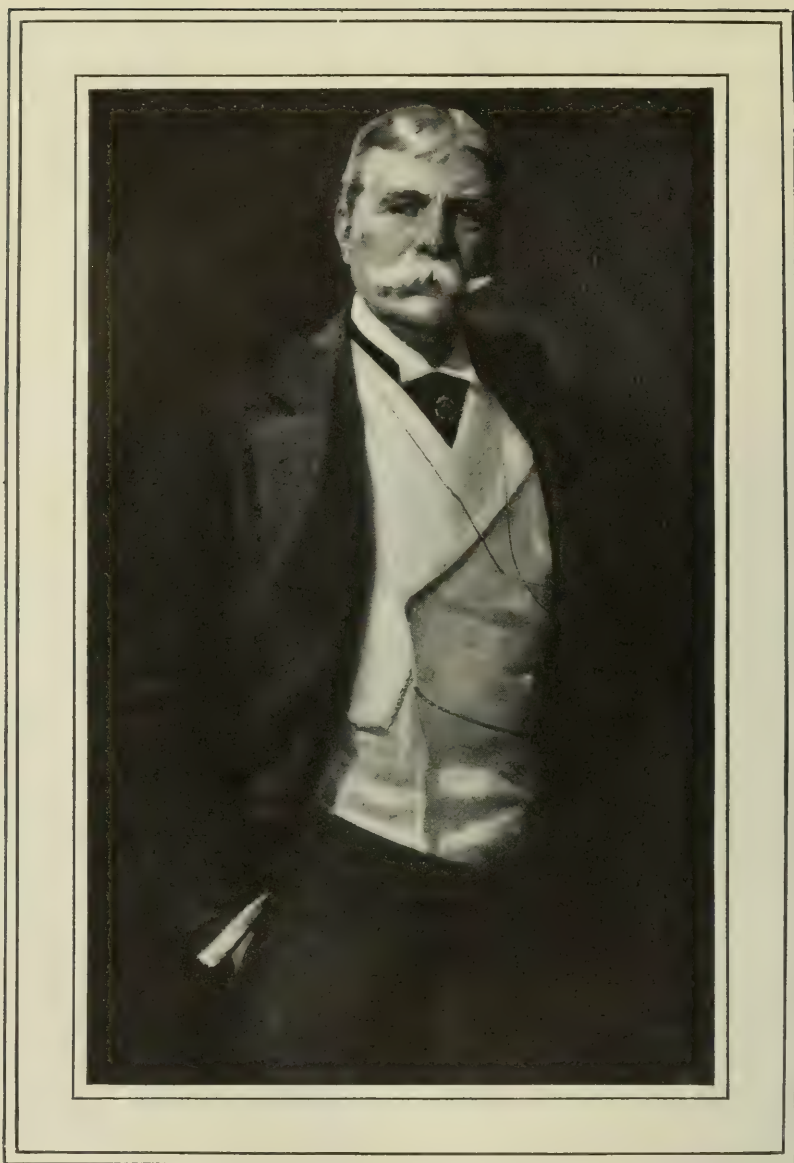
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THE LATE F. HOPKINSON SMITH

(Few people were aware, until they read the notices of his death, that Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith was in his seventy-seventh year. He was born in October, 1838, at Baltimore, and died in New York, where he had long lived, on April 7. Until the very last he seemed twenty years younger than his age in appearance, and thirty years younger in energy and vigor. He was descended from old families of Virginia and Maryland, but thrown upon his own resources when a mere boy. Through intense energy he became a mechanical engineer and a building contractor. He was successful in such difficult kinds of work as building the foundations for lighthouses. He was fond of drawing as a boy, and in due time became a skillful draughtsman and water-colorist. By degrees his work as an artist absorbed his time and brought him profit and distinction. About thirty years ago he began to write, and later on to appear everywhere in the country as a public reader and lecturer. His books became by far more famous than his pictures, and his striking personality, great gifts as a speaker, and high convictions as a citizen and a man gave him his place as one of the foremost of contemporary Americans.)

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LI

NEW YORK, MAY, 1915

No. 5

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Efficiency—  
Social as Well  
as Personal*

If the word "efficiency" seems to grow a little tiresome through much repetition, it is well to remember that it has reference to means rather than to ends. In any case, it presupposes human will and energy as the motive force. Doubtless the experts can render great assistance in the conduct of business undertakings and personal affairs, where there is the disposition to make improvement, and intelligence enough to adopt efficient methods in place of haphazard or obsolete ways of doing things. Personal efficiency is both the beginning and the end of all things, in the opinion of most Americans. But it must never be forgotten that private or individual well-being is largely conditioned upon matters over which society as a whole can alone exercise control. The larger conception,—that of political, or social efficiency,—must be kept in mind. Fresh means must be found and applied from time to time for eradicating evils that the individual cannot wholly deal with by his own private methods.

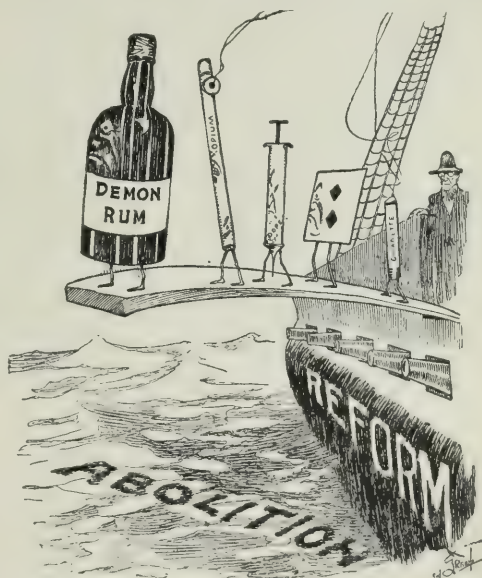
*"Dope" Law  
as an  
Instance*

A remarkable example of the application of means to ends in the pursuance of a reform making for social efficiency is furnished by the new federal law known as the Harrison Anti-narcotic Act. This law went into effect on the 1st of March. It was aimed at the alarming growth of drug habits in various forms, mostly those due to the use of morphine or cocaine, as derived from opium, coca leaves, and so forth. It was estimated, at the time the recent efforts to check this evil were begun, that there were possibly 400,000 victims of such drug habits in New York City alone. The evil has not been confined to cities, by any means, but has become alarmingly prevalent in country districts throughout the East, especially among the poorer classes in the mountain districts of New England, New York, and the South-

ern States. Various individual States, notably New York, have endeavored to stop the worst forms of the traffic in drugs, and under the Boylan Act of New York, for instance, a good deal has been done to stop the supplying of school children.

*A National  
Remedy  
Found*

But the traffic across State lines has been difficult to check, and many phases of the business could only be dealt with by the national Government itself. The earlier laws regulating drugs, and requiring the proper labeling of patent medicines, had value as a preliminary step. But the Harrison Act brings the machinery of the Internal Revenue office to bear in a drastic way that seems destined almost immediately to reduce the traffic to very small proportions. Everyone who imports, manufactures, sells, or gives



WALKING THE PLANK,—OPIMUM, "DOPE" AND  
CIGARETTES FOLLOWING RUM

From the *Telegram* (New York)



away opium or coca leaves, or any drug derived from them, must register with the Collector of Internal Revenue and pay a small special tax. This is intended to bring all druggists and other vendors under notice and control. Every transaction must be recorded; Government blanks must be used in all cases; physicians, dentists, and veterinarians must keep records on their part, no less than druggists on theirs, and duplicate reports of all orders and sales must be given to Government officials. There are further details of the law which it is not our purpose to present in these remarks, in which we are dealing rather with the main objects and probable results of such Governmental action. The violation of the law entails heavy penalties of fine and imprisonment.

*Local  
Conditions  
Last Month*

The records necessitated by the Harrison law become at once available for the enforcement of State laws. Commissioner Woods, head of the New York Police Department, maintains a so-called "Dope Squad," which has been vigorously engaged in detecting and stopping the shameful business of supplying the pitiable victims of drug habits with the "medicines" that they crave. The misery of scores of thousands of such victims, suddenly deprived of narcotics, has been much noted in the newspapers during recent weeks. There have been many cases of suicide, many more of insanity, and still more of sudden physical and nervous collapse. Fortunately the social and political powers that have ordained these drastic efforts to end a great evil have also been endeavoring to help many of these sufferers back to normal health and self-respect. Considerable numbers have been taken into the hospitals of New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, St. Louis, and various other cities, where a standard form of treatment is given which in ten days or two weeks relieves the patients and brings hope of permanent cure. The hospitals have had nothing like the needed capacity, and thousands of sufferers have been obliged to wait.

*Help the  
Sufferers  
Promptly!*

Let us remind those in authority in various States, and hundreds of cities and towns, that they ought to make every effort to meet the emergency, and to provide special accommodations and medical aid, in order to help the largest possible number of so-called "addicts" in the shortest possible space of time. The chief difficulty in the past has been

that "drug fiends" who seemed cured for the time being have relapsed into the habit through the ease with which they could obtain supplies of morphine, heroin, or the like. It is a cheering reflection that those who are now being aided by hospital treatments will henceforth have the protection afforded by the new federal law.

*The World's  
Ban Upon  
Opium*

The full significance of this admirable step towards a higher social efficiency, as taken by the national government, can hardly be appreciated unless the reader also has in mind a corresponding movement on the international scale. We refer to the opium treaties, in the negotiation of which our government has had the honorable position of leader. Thirty-four nations have joined in this great prohibition enterprise. The whole story was told in this REVIEW last month, in an article by Dr. Hamilton Wright, entitled "The End of the Opium Question." Those who overlooked that article should go back and read it now. It tells of an achievement that is great and noble in itself, and that has the further value of pointing the way to the use of efficient means for attaining other objects of world-wide social value. It was at the instance of the United States that, in 1907, proposals were made to all the governments principally interested, to form an international commission on the opium question.

*Leading  
in a  
Noble Cause*

This commission met at Shanghai in 1909. Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria, Italy, Portugal, Holland, Russia, China, Japan, Siam, and Persia all accepted the invitation of the United States and sent accredited delegates. Two of our three delegates were Dr. Hamilton Wright, eminent as an expert in tropical diseases and habit-forming drugs, and Bishop Brent of the Philippines. This conference at Shanghai was a hopeful success, and led to the International Opium Conference at The Hague, in the winter of 1911-12, to which Dr. Wright and Bishop Brent were again sent as two of our three delegates. The result of The Hague meeting was a treaty providing for the abolition of the opium traffic in so far as it related to the use of opium for smoking as a deleterious habit. The conference met again in 1913, with the added support of all South American countries. It remained for this treaty to be followed by certain protocols which were to give its provisions practical effect. All the preliminary history of the subject

was excellently presented to our readers in an article entitled "The Background of the Opium Conference at The Hague," which appeared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for February, 1912, from the pen of Mr. Elbert F. Baldwin, who was present at the conference. The final steps and the general results are summed up for us by Dr. Wright—himself so indefatigable a leader in the movement—in our article of last month. It was on Lincoln's Birthday of the present year that the protocol was signed at The Hague by the Dutch Foreign Minister, the Chinese Minister to Holland on behalf of his government, and Dr. Henry van Dyke, as American Minister at The Hague on behalf of our government. Lord Morley, as Secretary for India in the British cabinet, had seven or eight years ago entered upon a policy, by agreement with China, that was intended to bring the opium traffic between the two countries to an end next year by reducing the volume 10 per cent. annually.

*Credit Due  
to the  
Nations*

It has required intelligent devotion to the higher aims of human society to induce India, China, the Dutch East Indies, Siam, and various other countries and colonies, to enter into mutual agreement to give up a traffic which provided them, in some cases, with the greater part of their public revenue and therefore compelled them to impose other forms of taxation. It is well to note all the international forces that are working for good, because it is precisely such forces as these that we must invoke, in every possible way, in order to build up world tribunals, and establish the methods that are to bring peaceable agreements and solutions, and thus diminish the danger of war. As for the particular evil of opium, its elimination is now clearly in sight; and this means inestimable benefit to countless millions of men in Asia, particularly in China, while it also means much to a host of people living under the American flag. The aggregate loss of a hundred million dollars annual revenue will be far more than made up, to the governments that are chiefly concerned, by the increased efficiency of the millions of men redeemed or saved from a degrading vice.



BISHOP CHARLES HENRY BRENT

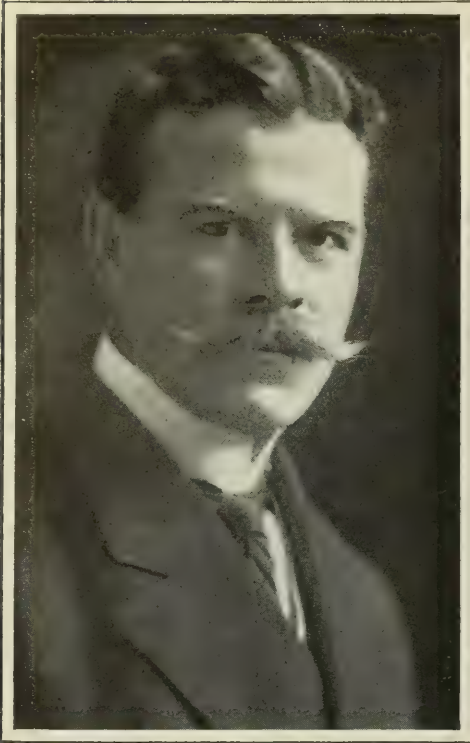
(Bishop Brent has, for the past fourteen years, been head of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Philippine Islands. As a representative of the United States, he was chosen president of the International Opium Commission in 1908, and also president of the International Opium Conference at The Hague in 1911)

*How One Task  
Helps  
Another*

Those Americans who are in the habit of deprecating our assumption of responsibility for the Philippines ought to be reminded that this splendid consensus of the whole Eastern world in putting an end to the opium traffic

grew directly out of our experiences in those islands. As Dr. Wright explains, it was in 1906 that the spread of the opium habit in the Philippines began to attract the serious attention of our authorities. They took firm steps for its local suppression, leading the world in this regard. It was in consequence of this Philippine situation that our Government took the next step, and invited the world to the series of conferences which ended in the agreement of thirty-four nations to stop the opium traffic in 1915. Dr. Hamilton Wright had acquired experience and repute in dealing with medical conditions in the Orient, and Bishop Brent had become a great moral leader in the Philippines. Thus our Far Eastern experience had provided us with men supremely fitted to represent us and to influence the delegates of other nations. Furthermore, our Philippine experience has trained a good many other experts in sanitary science and public administration, and has brought about results that are destined to transform conditions in various parts of the world. We have formed new ideas of what it is possible to accomplish for the welfare of backward societies.





DR. HAMILTON WRIGHT

(Dr. Wright is a famous pathologist who, after research work in American and foreign universities, spent a dozen years in studying tropical diseases in Asia, Europe, and the United States. Since 1908 he has given most of his attention to directing the efforts of the United States Government to solve the opium problem)

*Value of  
Philippine  
Experience*

Perhaps it may be within bounds to say that the world's experience furnishes no other example so striking, in the field of health administration, as that which we have presented in the Philippine Islands. We ourselves have done nothing else quite equal to it, whether at home or abroad. Our public health authorities, with the aid of our laboratory workers in bacteriology, have made great discoveries regarding the cause and cure of infectious and parasitical diseases. But more than this, they have shown heroic qualities of courage and self-sacrifice in the application of their discoveries to afflicted populations. Thus they have transformed the Philippine Islands, and have shown how to make the tropics as healthful as the temperate zones. They have made possible the construction of the Panama Canal, and have created the conditions for assured progress and development throughout Central America and the northern borders of the South American continent. What they have done for Porto Rico was shown in our December

number, in an authoritative article by Mr. Alton G. Grinnell, entitled "The Physical Emancipation of Porto Rico." He described the nature of the hookworm disease which had rendered the workers of the island anemic and inefficient; and he set forth the facts in the great campaign led by Major Ashford, of our United States Medical Corps, which is making a new people of the Porto Ricans and which, along with other sanitary reforms, will constitute such a mission of beneficence as has seldom in the world's history come from without to any suffering people.

*Social  
Efficiency and  
Cuban Reform*

An Englishman who knew the facts remarked to an American, not long ago, that the history of the world failed to record any other example of altruism on the part of one people towards another, so splendid in its effects and so consistent in its freedom from sinister acts, as the reconstruction of Cuba by the United States. Havana was one of the pest-holes of the world. Yellow fever and many other dread diseases were always there, most of them endemic and some of them frequently and flagrantly epidemic. And the other towns and villages of Cuba were little, if any, better. To-day Havana is one of the healthiest cities in the entire world, and Cuba as a whole is counted in the very foremost of communities and nations in the matter of a low death rate. In helping Cuba we have helped ourselves, inasmuch as New Orleans and our other Southern cities are now safe from yellow fever, Asiatic cholera, and other infections. Keeping all its quaint-



THE AMERICAN SPIRIT OF HELPFULNESS  
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)



HAVANA ENJOYS HEALTH AND PROSPERITY, THANKS TO AMERICAN SANITARY RECONSTRUCTION

ness and character as an old Spanish town, Havana is rapidly growing as a beautiful and well-kept modern city. The Government of the United States made a covenant with the Government and people of Cuba, as regards several matters, three of which were as follows: (1) The Cubans must maintain the good sanitary conditions created by the medical experts of the United States Army; (2) the Cubans must govern themselves as a republic by orderly processes, and must not indulge in chaotic and destructive civil violence; (3) the Cubans must show financial efficiency and good faith in dealing with foreign bondholders and creditors, so as to give no outside nation excuse for intervention. All of these conditions are of the utmost advantage to the people of Cuba who care for their own welfare and that of their marvelous island. There are phases of our American public life that cause us anxiety and lead us to feel that we come far short in the business of governing ourselves. We note many instances of inefficiency, extravagance, political corruption, the use of public power for private ends. It helps, however, to clarify our views and to revive our courage, when we consider certain positive achievements, such as this recent carrying through of the great opium agreement, the sanitary and educational progress of Porto Rico and the Philippines under our auspices,

and the firm foundations we have laid for the welfare and prosperity of Cuba.

*Alaska  
as Another  
Instance*

An article in the present number of the REVIEW is apropos of the announcement, on April 10, of the route decided upon for the Government's railroad that is to penetrate the heart of Alaska and open up that great region for development in a safe and wise manner. We have here an instance of courageous statesmanship, working out a constructive policy, after long waiting and under many difficulties. If the country had not gained confidence by what we had done in Panama, the Philippines, and elsewhere, we should not have decided to spend \$35,000,000 upon a Government railroad in the wilds of Alaska. Yet we have so decided, the route has been chosen, and the work will now go forward. The plan has been entered upon under the leadership of Secretary Lane, without harsh criticism from any influential quarter. It is a radical policy, yet it is supported by conservative statesmen and is not opposed by our leading men in the fields of transportation and general business. The railroad-building policy is associated with accepted methods for leasing mineral lands, dealing with the great Alaskan forests, opening up the agricultural valleys, and bringing to Alaska a new population and a diffused prosperity. The





ALASKA,—THE PROSPERITY SPECIAL  
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)

great doctrines and policies relating to the conservation of our natural resources were boldly set forth by President Roosevelt and were supported by many men in office and in private life. Here was the gospel of efficiency as applied to the material resources of the American people for generations to come.

In many ways the views then set forth by public men at Washington, and by scientific experts like President Van Hise of Wisconsin, are now taking form in wise and far-reaching measures. The Alaska bills of the present Administration embody these conservation principles and give us assurance that some of the worst mistakes of our land policy as applied to forests, coal, and other resources will not be repeated in our great northwestern province. In like manner, Secretary Lane, supported by President Wilson, has worked out measures for the leasing of water-power rights, oil and coal lands, and other kinds of natural wealth in the public domain of the semi-arid and mountain regions of our great West. These are reasonably certain to become laws in the immediate future. And all these achievements will also bear testimony to the power of our Government to do things upon a plane of high motive and intelligence. Such enactments for the public welfare will go far, in the long run, to atone for governmental mistakes and extravagances in other directions.

In terrible contrast with the examples of effective reconstruction that we have thus recounted lies our ruined and chaotic neighbor, Mexico. When we intervened in Cuba, in 1898, the

Mexico  
and Its  
Needs

war between Spain and the Cuban patriots had been going on for three years, with widespread devastation and misery growing ever more intense. Neither side could prevail over the other, and some form of intervention was imperative. There were those who would have had the United States proceed much earlier to act as policeman and quell the riot. But the fullness of time had not come until after the Proctor report on the reconcentration camps and the suffering of women and children. What we actually did in Cuba was for the best interests of the Spaniards, though it is deeply to be regretted that our intervention had to take the form and bear the name of war. It is a thousand pities that the training and experience we have gained in Cuba, Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Panama could not be utilized to aid in the reconstruction of Mexico. Affairs seem of late to have been going from bad to worse. Not only do conditions in Mexico violate the rights of all foreigners living there or having interests, but they are bringing misery or ruin upon the whole Mexican population with the exception of the plundering leaders of military bands, and their armed hordes that live by looting and plunder.

Why Not  
Invite  
Uncle Sam?

Existing struggles are not working out anything of value. There is no public opinion in Mexico that finds expression; no government anywhere except that of military chiefs. General Villa continues to dominate the north. General Carranza maintains himself with



"BLIND MAN'S BUFF" IN MEXICO  
From the *Tribune* (South Bend)

headquarters at Vera Cruz. Mexico City has for the time being lost its political and military importance, and belongs to any chieftain who chooses to camp in the bare and desolate halls of the Presidential palace. General Huerta left his retreat in Spain, late in March, and landed in New York on April 12. He was prepared to talk freely to the newspapers. To many people it seemed strange that Huerta should have been admitted to this country. But a moment's reflection will show that there is no ground upon which he could have been excluded. His retirement from the dictatorship at Mexico City, in July, and his withdrawal from Mexico, happened while our troops were in possession of Vera Cruz. He is now, so far as we are concerned, merely a private person with the rights of any traveler. There are many Mexicans, of many groups and factions, who are now enjoying personal safety in the United States. If they were actuated by a true regard for the welfare of their country they would all get together and try to bring about a beneficent mediation in Mexican affairs by the Government of the United States. They would favor a plan starting with cessation of hostilities, universal amnesty, and

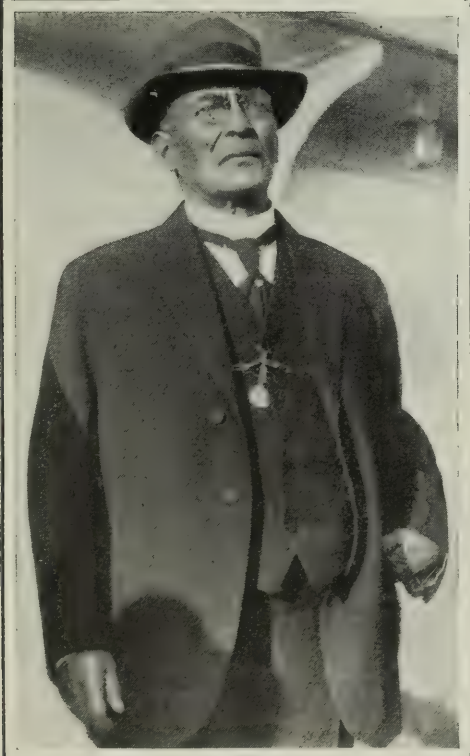


WAR, AS THE GREAT REFORMER  
From the *Evening News* (Newark)

a provisional government to be recognized and supported by the United States. Next should come a reorganization of various public services with the aid of American experts. As a permanent basis, Mexicans should welcome some arrangement with the United States for the assurance of civil peace and order, and of sound finance, somewhat upon the Cuban plan. As things are, there is no intelligible or hopeful trend in current Mexican affairs. A Mexican who is perhaps the ablest and best informed of those now in New York expresses the view that things will in due time become better, because they could not be worse than they are.

*Alcohol, the  
Pressing  
Issue*

The application of national means to relieve society from the harm done by insidious drug habits undoubtedly has the full approval of public opinion. And the united movement of the nations to stop the opium traffic,—which must result at once in turning the poppy-fields of India, Siam, China, Java, and other regions to the growth of cotton and other useful articles,—is also certain to hold the support of all governments and of world-wide opinion, even through a period of world-wide war. But a larger issue now confronts the nations in their struggle for competitive efficiency, as well as in their new sense of permanent social progress, and that is the question of the use of alcohol. Never before has the drink habit met with such determined opposition in high quarters



Photograph by American Press Association

GENERAL HUERTA ON HIS ARRIVAL AT NEW YORK



as it confronts in the present year. For some time past we have kept our readers informed of the rising tide of anti-saloon legislation that has been sweeping across this country, as expressed in local and State action. But the great event that has turned the scale in the new movement against alcohol has been the action of Russia.

*The New Emancipation of Russian Serfs*

The form of spirits heretofore in widespread use throughout Russia is known as "vodka." The sale of spirits has been a government monopoly and the largest source of Russia's revenue. Russia has been deriving more than \$450,000,000 a year of public income from the sale of spirits, chiefly vodka. During the period of army mobilization last year the Russian Government ordered a temporary closing of the vodka shops. At first this was merely a momentary expedient, intended to secure sobriety and good order as men were leaving their homes to join the colors. But the effect of stopping the sale of drink was so transforming in its good results that there arose an unexpected national sentiment in favor of making the temporary order a permanent one. Russian statesmen are commenting freely upon the economic and social benefits. Mr. Bark, the Finance Minister, was quoted last month as declaring that the Russian people, in their social and economic conditions, are thus far gainers rather than losers by the war. Abstinence from drink brings a new emancipation that recalls the events of an earlier reign. The people are now depositing more money in the savings banks each month than previously in an entire year. The government has set to work to find a great variety of sources of income, including a stiff temporary advance of tariff duties, to make up for the loss of the money derived heretofore from profits on the sale of drink. The world had not expected Russia to lead in such reforms, and a deep impression has been made.

*Russian Progress*

We are publishing in this number of the REVIEW an article entitled "The New Russia," by Mr.

Charles Johnston, whose personal relations, as well as long-continued studies, have made him unusually familiar with Russia from the inside. Our readers will remember his article several months ago upon the Russian military leaders. Mr. Johnston dwells with especial emphasis upon the new land policy, which, in his opinion, will have a profound effect upon the prosperity and development of the peasantry. Individual proprietorship

is taking the place of the ancient village communisms; and while this will bring about much better farming, it will not destroy the valuable capacity of the Russians for

coöperative action. The steady growth of the people in wealth and knowledge must in due time give greater strength to the new governmental forms, and by degrees change Russia from autocratic to democratic methods. Meanwhile, an autocratic government can enforce such a reform as that of the closing of the vodka shops. Great social evils are not com-

pletely healed by the magic of a decree; and the Russians must have before them a long period of struggle before sobriety and its attendant virtues are completely realized. But it would be idle to deny the greatness of the step that has actually been taken. Russia is expecting an early opportunity to market her accumulated surplus of wheat. At the recent conference of the Russian, French, and British finance ministers, it was agreed to give the Russian Government credit for \$250,000,000, half in Paris and half in London, as against a promised purchase of Russian wheat when the Dardanelles route or some other outlet could be opened. There has been more delay than was then expected in opening the water passage from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean, but most observers believe that within a few weeks the Allies will have



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THE GREAT TEMPERANCE WORKER  
From the Tribune (Chicago)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

#### THE FINANCE MINISTERS OF THE ALLIES, IN CONFERENCE AT PARIS

(Mr. Bark, the Russian Minister, is at the left; M. Ribot, of France, is in the center; and Chancellor Lloyd-George, of Great Britain, sits at the right.)

silenced the Turkish forts and occupied Constantinople. Meanwhile, the summer sun is opening the northern port of Archangel.

#### Temperance in France

In France there is on foot a temperance movement led by the strongest newspapers, with the approval and adherence of many public men. Early in the war one of the worst of alcoholic beverages, absinthe, was suppressed by the French Government, but other kinds of strong drink are easily obtained and their use is prevalent. The French movement aims chiefly at bringing the sale and use of liquors under regulation by a more effective kind of licensing, a prohibition of the stronger kinds of liquor that are being substituted for absinthe, and a sharp limiting of the hours during which drinks are sold. There is no movement in France against the making, vending, and ordinary use of domestic wines, in which the percentage of alcohol is not great. But there is likely to be a strong effort made to diminish the use of distilled liquors, and to regulate much more strictly the whole drink traffic, including the wine shops. Never before has France shown such seriousness of moral purpose; and it is believed that permanent social changes for the better are taking root.

#### England's Up- rising against Alcohol

The agitation in England, however, is just now the foremost topic in the worldwide movement against alcohol. It is hard for Americans who have not witnessed the thing themselves to realize the extent to which the working classes in the British Islands are addicted to drink, and the immense political and social power that the liquor traffic has long exercised in the United Kingdom. This traffic, together with the landed aristocracy and the established church, has been one of the three chief supports of Conservatism. But England is gradually taking the war seriously; and the foremost military and civil authorities find intemperance a handicap. They have even declared that the drink question was important enough to amount quite possibly to the difference between success and failure in the great struggle. The use of drink can, of course, be controlled in the army training camps, though stern measures have had to be used to protect the enlisted men against the drunkenness of the civilian environment. Of late, the drink question has been discussed from the standpoint of the efficiency of industrial workers. England is building great numbers of ships, and making all kinds of munitions and army and navy supplies. British workmen in





seven-year period had not been reduced to five. It is to be noted that the British Government has greatly extended its functions since the war broke out. If it has not gone as far as Germany in regulating food supplies and other matters of common concern, it has not hesitated to take any particular step that seemed needful. The war will end with England far more highly socialized than ever before.

*Temperance  
by Statute  
in America*

Undoubtedly these foreign situations are lending strength to the rapidly growing movement for prohibition in the United States. We have summed up from month to month the advance of this movement. In our notes last month we mentioned the extension of full prohibition, within half a year, to nine more States, making a total of eighteen. One of these, Utah, must drop from the list by reason of the fact that the measure as it passed both houses of the legislature was vetoed by Governor Spry. The lower house of the territorial legislature of Alaska has now almost unanimously voted in favor of prohibition. Most noteworthy, however, was the debate in the last Congress, and the vote by which considerably more than a majority of the members of the House supported a prohibition amendment to the national Constitu-

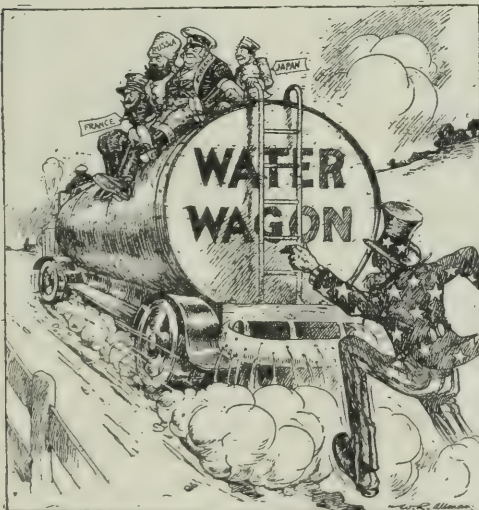


BRYAN WELCOMING A NEW MEMBER  
From the *World* (New York)

tion. The movement failed to obtain the requisite two-thirds. But its advocates are jubilant with the sense of great progress attained, and believe that the actual adoption of nation-wide prohibition is not far distant.

*Various  
Bearings*

In case President Wilson should decline to be a candidate for a second term, as political wiseacres last month were predicting, it is widely asserted that Mr. Bryan would be the Democratic nominee, on a platform declaring for national prohibition. Shrewd political observers have gone so far as to prophesy that both great parties will endorse prohibition in their platforms next year. Meanwhile, the national income, as well as those of many States and localities, shows the effect. In numerous States which have not adopted full prohibition, the liquor traffic is undergoing increased restriction through local option or the enforcement of rules and regulations. Attention has often been called to the fact that in many places the use of narcotics and drugs has increased with the suppression of liquor-selling. It has become desirable that these conditions should be met by positive programs for the improvement of public health and social conditions. The sudden and complete enforcement of a nation-wide ban upon alcoholic drinks would not produce the millennium. It would, however, go far to strengthen the forces that make for good and to lessen those that make for physical, moral,



WILL HE MAKE IT?

The international water-wagon is getting a bit crowded, but there's always room for one more.  
From the *Post* (Butte, Montana)





Photograph by American Press Association

THE AMERICAN HOSPITAL IN THE SUBURBS OF PARIS, WHICH IS REGARDED AS A MODEL IN THE SURGICAL CARE AND TREATMENT OF WOUNDED SOLDIERS

and economic evil. We publish in this issue a notable summary of the prohibitory movement as it is sweeping across the Dominion of Canada. The situation in the Northwest is especially striking.

*Health  
in the  
Armies*

Since we are speaking of matters in the current news from the standpoint of organized social efficiency, it may be well to look at a phase of militarism that we who preach the doctrines of peace have not perhaps presented with enough distinctness. We have dwelt habitually upon the terrible loss of life involved in the present war. We must also admit that there has been an unprecedented care for the health and strength of soldiers, so that the losses are incurred only in actual fighting. In previous wars, the loss of life due to typhoid fever, dysentery, and the various ailments of exposure and unsanitary conditions, has been far greater than that occasioned by bullets, bayonets, and swords. Furthermore, in most former wars the deaths among wounded men have resulted, in nine cases out of ten, from lack of antiseptic treatment and other kinds of neglect. The remarkable article that we are printing this month, from the pen of ex-Senator Beveridge of Indiana, shows among other things

how thoroughly the Germans are caring for their wounded men, and what a large part the surgeons and sanitarians are playing in the present war. Most of the wounded recover promptly, and by far the greater part of them are soon ready to go back to their regiments. The Germans have brought their millions of soldiers through the hard ordeal of a winter in the trenches, with average improvement rather than deterioration in physical fitness. The same thing seems to be true of the French and English soldiers. The men have scientific care, and they are sacrificed only to the grim god of war. They are not wasted by pestilence, nor abandoned when injured. If men can be thus trained to endure hardship, and cared for in their mishaps, when war gives emergency value to the life of the able-bodied men of military training, it follows that when the war is over human conservation upon principles of organized social efficiency must be applied to all industrial workers, and must begin with the children in schools. Since war is so shocking in its calamities, we must at least gain from it every incidental benefit that can come. One lesson is that of generally improved efficiency by reason of the uniform and enforced use of the discoveries and methods of preventive medicine.



THE CHILDREN OF THE KING AND QUEEN OF BELGIUM

(The Princess Marie-Jose is in her ninth year. It is in her name that the young folks of America are sending a food ship to the children of Belgium. Prince Leopold (at the right), heir to the Belgian throne, was last month reported to have enlisted as a common soldier. He is only thirteen years old, but is quite tall. Prince Charles (at the left) is in his twelfth year)

*Belgium,—Re-  
viving with  
Springtime*

Not only do the armies in training camps, and in a thousand miles of intrenchments, exhibit many notable phases of organized social efficiency in the care and maintenance of large masses of human beings, but other instances are furnished by conditions existing in regions devastated by warfare. Take the case of Belgium, for example. The war had swept across that country like a conjunction of the catastrophes that might have been

produced by earthquakes, conflagrations, floods, tornadoes. There seemed no recovery possible short of a century. Starvation and epidemic diseases seemed certain to follow in the wake of the war. Yet already there are evidences of rehabilitation. Relief has come in forms not haphazard, but orderly and efficient. There has been system in the supply, and method in the handling and distribution, of food from the United States and elsewhere. Quite apart from the accusations of



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GERMAN SOLDIERS DOING SPRING PLOWING FOR BELGIAN FARMERS





DR. RICHARD PEARSON STRONG

(Who is head of the sanitary commission sent to Serbia, by the American Red Cross and the Rockefeller Foundation. Dr. Strong is a noted biologist. He received his degree from the Johns Hopkins Medical School, and was for two years resident house physician at the Johns Hopkins Hospital. He entered the United States Army as an assistant surgeon, and was sent to the Philippines in 1899 to investigate tropical diseases there, becoming director of the Government's biological laboratory at Manila. He resigned, two years ago, to become professor of tropical medicine at Harvard)

vandalism and atrocity that were made against the Germans when they invaded Belgium, it is now admitted that they are endeavoring to manage the little country in a systematic way and to restore its industrial and agricultural life. They are helping the farmers plow the land, are encouraging the restoration of homes and the carrying on of industry and trade, and are promoting the maintenance of sanitary conditions.

*Serbia,—  
Organized  
Relief*

Gifts for Belgium have come in great number and large aggregate quantity from all parts of the United States; but it has been fortunate that the American Red Cross was able, in coöperation with the Rockefeller Foundation, to supply the means of transport and to make sure that everything given would reach those for whom it was intended, in full quantity and value. Not content with their mission to Belgium, these great agencies have

recently turned their attention to the terrible distress of Serbia, determined to meet the demands of that distant country to a degree that had not been thought possible. Besides contributions for food and for the supplying of seed grain to farmers, there has been response to the urgent call for medical and surgical supplies. That dreaded disease known as typhus fever,—very prevalent a few generations ago but recently almost extinct in Western Europe and America,—was becoming prevalent in malignant form among the suffering people whose attitude had furnished pretext for the beginning of the great war.

*A Sanitary  
Mission,—  
Typhus*

The Red Cross and the Rockefeller Foundation rose to this great emergency and determined to organize and direct a campaign in Serbia against an enemy far more dangerous than the Austrian troops. Typhus flourishes under conditions of overcrowding and uncleanness. American investigators in Mexico City, six years ago, discovered the manner in which typhus is carried by vermin. American Red Cross physicians and nurses went to Serbia several months ago, but they have been overtaken by illness in a number of cases, with several deaths. The larger sanitary mission to Serbia has now sent a group of distinguished bacteriologists and physicians, and Dr. William C. Gorgas, Surgeon-General of the United States Army, who has been helping to organize the campaign, was last month considering the question of going himself, and taking personal charge. There is danger not merely of the spread of typhus, but also of an outbreak of Asiatic cholera, and perchance of some other forms of infection, that might sweep across Europe before they could be checked. This beneficent mission to Serbia will be watched with the deepest sympathy and interest by all intelligent Americans. Conditions in Montenegro are also serious and distressing, and Albania has for weeks been reported as in a desperate plight by reason of famine and disease.

*Peace:—  
Are There  
No Signs?*

It is not strange, then, with all the present and threatened misery entailed by the war, that millions of people are looking anxiously for signs of peace. Whatever the leaders may think or feel, they keep a brave front, and talk of nothing but fighting on for the blessings of ultimate victory. Senator Beveridge, who has had a remarkable experience in Germany, France, and England, and who writes for us this month upon some condi-

tions in Germany, finds no weakening of confidence and resolution on either side. He has found unity of feeling in Germany, and a determination to fight a long time before accepting humiliating terms of peace. Mr. Simonds, in his admirable military review of the war in its recent phases (see page 547), finds Germany now on the defensive, with the power of the Allies apparently increasing all the time through sheer superiority of resources. Events would doubtless move much more swiftly if Italy should enter the war. But although that country is now in full fighting trim she has been holding back as if waiting to have her mind made up for her by some outside event. Her participation would be likely to turn the scale against Turkey and Austria, and leave Germany without the hope of further aid from her allies. With Austria-Hungary forced to make a separate peace, and Turkey subdued (on the supposition that Italy should join the Allies and throw a million men against Austria), the end of the war would begin to seem probable. The Germans would have to abandon Belgium and northern France, in order to protect Breslau and Berlin from the Russian advance, and to defend themselves along the Rhine against the offensive of the French and English. Conjectures are of no value, yet the coming of spring has brought with it a good deal of optimism, and a renewed hope in many minds that peace may not be far away.

Peace May  
Not Come  
through War

Reports from Turkey have been contradictory. Enver Pasha,—Turkish War Minister and supreme leader at the present moment of Turkey's military movements and international policies,—expresses the utmost optimism. He finds the people of Turkey awakened in the national sense as never before. He has visions of a modernized Turkey and a new order of things. He declares that he has almost 2,000,000 men in good fighting trim and with a new *esprit de corps*. Other reports are to the effect that the Turkish Army is badly fed, ill-equipped, and discontented. American interests in Turkey seem to be protected by the friendliness both of the authorities and the population. The Turks claim that they have half a million men at hand to defend Constantinople against the land movement of the Allies. The position of Hungary is also in dispute, as the tremendous advance of the Russians has made the Carpathian Mountains the chief storm-center of the whole war. Hungarian

newspapers have seemed to indicate a desire for immediate peace, and the government at Budapest is no longer attempting to suppress peace expressions through the censorship. The Italian plan seems to be to mobilize so strongly against the borders of Austria as to compel the Austrians to ask their intentions in a way that will amount to an ultimatum. This would furnish the awaited pretext, and Italy would spring into action as if the provocation had been given by the other side. While this does not seem admirable, it might have the fortunate effect of forcing negotiations for peace. The arguments of the closet philosophers in favor of having this horrible war go on until one great nation or another is completely crushed, seem very convincing as forms of words. But durable peace is much more likely to come if it be not deferred, and if its terms be not humiliating or impossible. This war has grown out of a past history for which all the European great powers and world empires are almost equally responsible. It is entirely permissible to pray for an early peace. The statesmen of Europe, in their private intimations, see no prospect of a short war if the end is to come through the complete overthrow of one side by the other. Early peace can only come through seeking it, and determining to have it. When the plain people in the countries at war begin to demand peace from their rulers and captains, the neutral nations should do what they can to help the movement. We should stand for early peace.

Planning  
against  
Wars

Many Americans, acting through societies and movements that have no selfish end to gain, are thinking earnestly about future safeguards against war. The best judgment of the country favors the strengthening of international tribunals, backed by a league of peace, the signatory powers agreeing to put their united armies and navies into action against an unruly member of the league who should go to war without first trying conciliation or arbitration. There is to be held at Cleveland, Ohio, from May 12 to the 14th, an important conference under the chairmanship of Mr. John Hays Hammond, to further the project of an efficient international court of justice. The announcement of the congress shows that the idea itself has been sufficiently studied and endorsed, and that the time has come, not to talk further of its feasibility, but of ways and means to establish it and set it at work. This Cleveland movement has no direct rela-



tion to the efforts for terminating the present war. A group of American women, meantime, went to The Hague last month to participate in a world conference of women who have the present situation in mind and are demanding that the war be brought to a speedy end as an intolerable wrong in itself.

*Our  
Neutrality  
Questioned*

No month passes by without the appearance in the newspapers of disquieting things regarding the relations of the United States with one country or with several. President Wilson made some useful remarks on April 19 to a body of women in Washington on the importance of keeping our minds quiet and judging according to principle. There is certainly no reason to accuse the present administration of evidencing excitement in the face of the world's troubles and alarms. British and German orders and decrees as affecting neutral commerce seem to have lost their novelty as a current topic, and to have become academic rather than practical issues. There was a half-hour's flurry last month over a remarkable German memorandum offered in the name of Ambassador Bernstorff. But since the public did not mind it in the least, it was promptly forgotten. This Bernstorff memorandum chides the United States Government for permitting the sale of arms and munitions to the Allies, while showing no vigor in its assertion of the rights of Americans to trade with Germany in food and other things of a non-contraband nature.

*Uncle Sam  
a Fair Neutral*

We are reminded that we made one order after another affecting the shipment of arms to factions fighting in Mexico, and that we ought to stop the purchase of arms by the Allies from American manufacturers. It is to be regretted that the Ambassador was put in the position of fathering such a communication. Nobody knows better than he that if the situation were reversed and Germany happened to be buying war stuff here, our Government could not interfere without violating the principles of neutrality. As for what we did about Mexico, the border strife along the Rio Grande affects us so closely as to be almost a domestic issue. Our experience with Mexico does not, therefore, afford a precedent that could be applied to situations in general. Americans have a right to dislike as much as they please the supplying of foreign armies with guns, powder, and other things made in a neutral country like ours. But the facts do not



A PENINSULA PROMINENT IN LAST MONTH'S NEWS

warrant criticism of our conduct on the part of one of the belligerents. In the main, however, Germany's diplomatic expressions have been courteous, and there is no prospect of serious disagreement.

*Japan's  
Activities*

It was also true for a moment last month that the newspapers tried to create some excitement about Japan's attitude towards us. We were told that the Japanese had sent a number of warships to Turtle Bay, in Lower California, had landed a great many men, and were establishing a base there, with presumably hostile designs. It was even intimated that the grounding of the cruiser *Asama*, early in March, might have been part of a deep design to get permanent footing. A naval inquiry and report, however, resulted in putting a different face upon the affair. Seemingly, the Japanese had sent to Turtle Bay only such materials and men as were needed for the difficult task of getting the stranded cruiser afloat. Turtle Bay is several hundred miles south of San Diego. Lower California is of a good deal more importance to the United States than to Mexico, and its purchase would be desirable. This country has made it clear, however, that foreign naval bases must not be established upon the Mexican coast. Japan has her attention fixed upon her negotiations with China. Our Government has informed the Chinese Foreign Office that we will yield no rights of trade and intercourse guaranteed in our existing treaties. This

means that China must not grant to Japan, or any other power, exclusive rights in the trade and development of particular provinces, that would conflict with the rights of trade already accorded to the world at large. Many questions having to do with the pending issues between Japan and China were raised in the British House of Commons last month, but the ministry declined to answer.

*The Pan-American Financial Conference*

Our Government has taken a timely step in the calling of a conference of finance ministers and leading bankers of the American republics, to assemble in Washington for sessions that will open on May 24. Acceptances were promptly received by Secretary McAdoo as the leader in this movement, from all the greater countries of South America, as well as from the smaller ones, including those of Central America and the West Indies. The diplomats at Washington, as well as the financial authorities from the Pan-American Republics, will take part in the conference. Many able and distinguished men are coming as delegates, and the gathering promises to be one of the most important international conferences ever held in the Western Hemisphere. This matter was first broached last November, when the Department of State, with the President's approval, asked the South American countries if they would be disposed to accept an invitation to have their financiers confer with the Secretary of the Treasury at Washington in regard to improved financial relations between this country and theirs. The war had created new conditions, and the invitation was very generally accepted. Congress responded favorably to the suggestion, and appropriated \$50,000 for the entertainment of the visitors as guests of the nation. The Secretary of Commerce and the members of the Federal Reserve Board, together with certain invited American bankers, will be members of the conference. The names of the delegates from the leading South American countries have been announced, and the list embraces many men of distinction as statesmen or prominence as bankers and financiers.

*The Trade Balance Still Mounting*

If the preliminary indications of great yields of grain should point true, the export of food-stuffs will further increase our favorable trade balance with Europe in 1915, already sure to be of a magnitude never approached before. Europe is still crying for our wheat and cotton, and getting it, at prices for wheat

which would have seemed impossible a year ago, and at slowly, but surely, mounting prices for cotton. The latter staple has risen in price from less than 7 cents soon after the beginning of the war to nearly 10 cents at present. The Treasury Department's figures for the trade balance in our favor for the first four months of this year are unlike anything seen before. These four months brought an aggregate excess of value of exports over imports,—the favorable balance of trade,—of no less than \$595,000,000. This was actually a greater balance in our favor than has been seen for any whole year of the past five, except 1913. The balances for the first half of April indicate that, by the end of the month, the first five months of 1915 will bring a balance in our favor greater than that of any whole year in our history. Secretary Houston,—who as head of the Department of Agriculture is using the power of the Government to develop economic efficiency in the production and handling of farm crops and herds,—presents for our readers a remarkable summary showing how the surplus exportable products of American soil have saved the nation's credit, and have turned the balance of trade in our favor.

*How Will Europe Pay Us?*

It is to be remembered also that the usual subtractions from this favorable balance of trade are not to be made this year in anything like their normal amounts, one of them—money spent by American tourists in Europe—having practically vanished, while the others are greatly reduced. Europe has been accustomed to pay us for goods exported from America in three ways: (1) with other goods; (2) with gold; and (3) with the interest due her on our securities held abroad. The only practicable ways for America to get its payment for the present great excess of exports over imports seem to be the taking back of our securities held abroad, and the loaning of money to Europe with which to buy goods from us. The latter process is exemplified by the recent flotation in this country of short-term notes by the great powers, such as the \$50,000,000 of notes of the French Government, running for one year and sold to American investors at 99½, and thus netting them 5½ per cent.

*Turbulent Wall Street Optimism*

It was reported on good authority that steady sales of European-held American securities have been made under cover of the greatly



excited trading and wild advance in prices that the first three weeks of April brought to the New York Stock Exchange. While the common stocks of the General Motors Company and of the Bethlehem Steel Company were soaring to 145 and 155, respectively, as against the low prices last autumn of 39 and 29½; while the "Street" was seething in a succession of "million-share days," the prices of the conservative railroad stocks and other standard issues, such as are most largely held in Europe, made gains amounting to only the merest fraction of the advances in price of many industrial issues. Experienced observers have concluded that to some extent the careful but considerable selling of securities held by Europeans was responsible for this disparity, these securities consisting in great measure of the standard railway shares.

*War Orders  
In Speculative  
Trades*

To be sure, there were very definite reasons given for the sudden and apparently reckless impulse of great numbers of people, both in and out of Wall Street, to buy at constantly advancing prices the common stocks of corporations which only a few months ago seemed to be years off from any dividend declaration, and most of which were in the doldrums as to current work and earnings. Orders from Europe for ordnance, shells, and other war supplies were the occasion of starting this excited speculative movement. The Bethlehem Steel Company, under Mr. Schwab's astute management, was known to have secured orders for very large quantities of war material, and to show current book earnings of handsome proportions. Mr. Schwab made it perfectly plain that these earnings would have to be turned back into the property for an indefinite time before any considerable profits would be paid to the common stockholders. Yet the people's imagination was fired, and the stock went up by leaps and bounds, showing as much as thirty points extreme gain in a single day. The second known cause of the advance in many other low-priced industrials was the securing of an order for war supplies by the Canadian Car and Foundry Company, of such huge dimensions that sub-contracts had to be parceled out among several companies in the United States formerly engaged in making locomotives or cars or steel for other industrial purposes. These known facts, supported by less important orders for motor trucks given to the Studebaker Company and other automobile factories, together with the wild-est rumors of additional war orders from Europe, brought advances in the quotations

of low-priced equipment and steel companies only less sensational than those seen in the Bethlehem episode.

*Wall Street's  
Prophecy and  
Present Facts*

It is commonly understood that movements of price in Wall Street often refer to events in the industrial world which are to come a good while after the Stock Exchange activity. Certainly there is nothing in the present condition of business in the United States to justify such sudden and overwhelming optimism as the stock markets have shown. Yet matters are undoubtedly better than they were, if only a little. Instead of the long list of important corporations, noted last autumn in these pages, which had recently passed or reduced their dividends, the first quarter of 1915 shows twelve companies that passed dividends and the same number that have reduced payments; while there have been in this period nine resumptions and four increases. Of the companies passing dividends, four have been steel concerns, the most important of which was the United States Steel Corporation. Of those reducing dividends, the most important was the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. In April it was said the steel mills were running at about 70 per cent. of capacity, which is very much better than they have done for many months. The price of copper metal has advanced from a little more than 12 cents last autumn to more than 17 cents, and many of the large copper-producing concerns, which closed down entirely,—or radically reduced their operations,—early last autumn, have resumed work. Most important of all, the finances of the railroads, which had come to be an exceedingly dangerous factor of weakness, are showing some slight improvement.

*How the  
Railroads Have  
Suffered*

How severely general business depression and their own peculiar troubles had hit the railroads is shown in the report of the Interstate Commerce Commission on the railroad business of the country for the year ending June 30, 1914. Yet this report, made public in April, does not by any means give an adequate impression of the dangerous financial situation of the roads, because it does not cover this last autumn and winter, when their losses and exigencies were even greater than in the year previous. The Commission's report shows that last summer there was a decrease of 120,000 in the number of railway employees, and that more than one-third of the railway capital stock outstanding received no dividends.

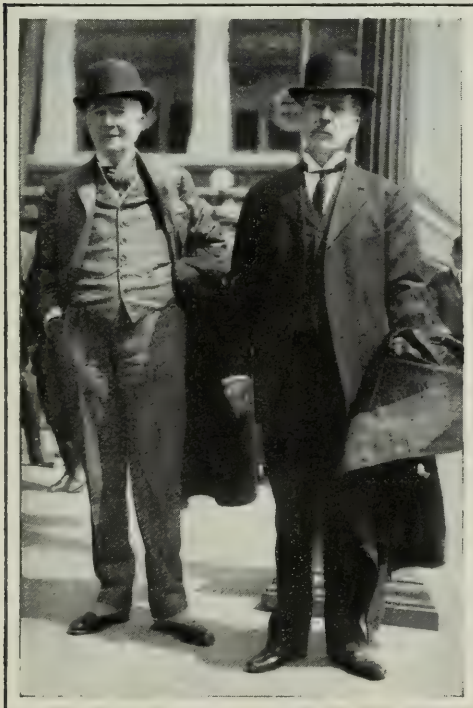
*Barnes  
against  
Roosevelt*

Last July, when the Republicans of New York were trying to find a candidate for Governor who would secure the support of the Progressives, Colonel Roosevelt declined to support anybody who was in accord with the so-called "machine," under the leadership of William Barnes, of Albany, as chairman of the Republican State Committee. A well-known lawyer and former State Senator, Harvey D. Hinman, of Binghamton, had expressed himself in a manner that met Colonel Roosevelt's approval. Accordingly there was issued from Oyster Bay a strong statement on behalf of Mr. Hinman's candidacy, in which the Colonel denounced the misgovernment under which the State had suffered, and laid the blame upon an alliance of crooked politics and crooked business. He mentioned Mr. Barnes, and Mr. Murphy as head of Tammany Hall, as bosses whose organizations worked together behind the scenes whenever they found it profitable to do so. Subsequently Mr. Barnes brought a libel suit against Colonel Roosevelt, and it was eventually agreed that the trial should take place at Syracuse. It began before Judge William S. Andrews, of the New York State bench, on April 19. The chief



Photograph by International News Service, New York

MR. WILLIAM BARNES



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MR. WILLIAM M. IVINS AND MR. JOHN J. ADAMS  
(Lawyers for Mr. Barnes)

counsel for Mr. Barnes was Mr. William M. Ivins, of New York City. An equally distinguished lawyer of the same city, John M. Bowers, appeared for Colonel Roosevelt. With him were associated his partner, Mr. W. H. Van Benschoten, and lawyers of the bar of the county where the case was tried.

*Politics  
in the  
Case*

Upon Mr. Barnes' behalf it was claimed that the case was one of malicious personal libel. On Mr. Roosevelt's behalf it was declared that the attack was made upon a political system, in which Mr. Barnes happened to be a leader for the time being, rather than upon the man in his private and personal capacity. It is one thing to know about the political game as it has been run by Tammany chiefs and Republican chiefs. It is another thing to bring proof in a legal action. There are hundreds, perhaps thousands, of men who know facts that are relevant. There are hundreds of thousands of others who have a very firm opinion concerning party methods and leadership in the Empire State. But most of the men who really know, have their own reasons for not appearing as witnesses in court. Practically all of those who have firm opinions could not testify as of their own knowledge. Mr. Barnes is said





JUDGE WILLIAM S. ANDREWS  
(Presiding at the Barnes-Roosevelt trial)

to have great political ambition, and to be aspiring to the United States Senatorship, and perhaps to the Presidency. He and Mr. Roosevelt both began their political careers in Albany. Mr. Barnes is the grandson of Thurlow Weed and controls and conducts the Albany *Evening Journal*, which was the newspaper of his distinguished grandsire. Mr. Barnes, like Mr. Roosevelt, is a graduate of Harvard, but his class was eight years later. The trial was pending as these pages were sent to the press; and it would not be fitting to comment freely upon its testimony or its bearings until after the verdict is rendered. It is permissible to add, however, that the country seemed to take it as a political matter almost entirely, and not as having to do with the private characters of either of the principal figures.

San Francisco  
a Convention  
City

In accord with a custom followed for more than twenty years, we present in this May issue of the REVIEW (see page 540) data regarding a number of the more important conventions, conferences, and other gatherings to be held during the remainder of the year. Upon previous occasions this list has included European assemblies of international scope; but this year there are none such to mention. It is interesting to note that nearly one-half of

those organizations which hold regular meetings are to gather, during the coming months, at one or another of the cities of California. Most of them, of course, will meet at San Francisco, but many will hold their sessions at Los Angeles, Pasadena, Berkeley, or Oakland. The management of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, besides inviting and welcoming regular assemblies, has arranged a galaxy of special congresses of great importance. So far as space has permitted we have made note of these gatherings.



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MR. JOHN M. BOWERS AND MR. ROOSEVELT  
(A snapshot at Syracuse)

A Republican  
Mayor in  
Chicago

The second largest city in the United States,—the fourth largest in the world,—elected a Mayor last month, and installed him in office for a term of four years. The new Mayor of Chicago is William Hale Thompson, a Republican. He succeeds Carter H. Harrison, a Democrat, and was elected by an unprecedented plurality of 140,000 votes over his Democratic opponent, Robert M. Sweitzer. Women participated in the election; and, as a separate count was made of their votes, an unusual opportunity was afforded for an accurate comparison of the political standards of men and women. Ordinary campaign issues had been supplemented by

extraordinary ones. Local traction and social conditions, and boss rule, were overshadowed, in the last weeks of the campaign, by discussion of the business situation, of religion, and of the war in Europe. Yet with these varied issues the women of Chicago voted in exactly the same way as the men. Eliminating the Socialist and Prohibition vote, the figures show that 61 per cent. of the women and 60 per cent. of the men voted for Mr. Thompson. It was Mr. Sweitzer's misfortune that some of his adherents had attempted to capitalize his Teutonic ancestry, with disastrous effect. He also, as a Catholic, fared ill in a controversy over religion,—ignored by the candidates and the press, but seriously discussed among the people. Mayor Thompson is a wealthy real-estate operator, a sportsman in the higher sense, and brings to his office vigor and capacity. His only previous experience in public office was a term in the City Council.

*Lower 'Phone  
Rates for  
New York*

Last month noteworthy reductions were made in the telephone rates of New York City after a series of investigations conducted by the Public Service Commission and a committee of the New York State Legislature, of which Senator A. Foley was chairman. This committee had retained Professor Edward W. Bemis, of Chicago, an experienced appraiser of public utility rates, and the telephone company, on its part, had placed before both the Public Service Commission and the committee full records of the cost of construction

of the telephone plant in New York City. These records, together with the complete disclosure of its affairs that was freely made by the company, made it possible to arrive at a conclusion regarding the equity of the proposed rate reductions with great expedition. In the result there was a remarkably slight variation between the findings of the committee, those of the Public Service Commission, and the concessions of the telephone company itself. The contention of Professor Bemis, as adopted by the Foley Committee, was that the actual cost of the plant and not an estimated cost of reproduction should be the basis taken in fixing its value for rate-making purposes. This contention was not admitted by the company, but in the end it accepted the order of the Public Service Commission which fixed rates involving a reduction in the company's income of about \$2,800,000. This is a noteworthy instance of a rate reduction for the public benefit based exclusively on ascertained facts, and it is, at the same time, a wholesome example of a generous attitude towards the public on the part of a corporation which must temporarily, at least, be a loser by the change.

*New York  
State  
Affairs*

The New York State legislature, which was scheduled to adjourn late last month, devoted much of the session to a consideration of the State revenues, with the result that a special tax was finally levied for the purpose of covering a deficit of \$18,000,000. Considerable prominence was also given to social legislation. A pension bill for widowed mothers was passed, to take effect July 1, marking another social step forward for the Empire State. A measure which would have increased the working hours of women and children in the canning industry of the State from 66 to 72 hours per week provoked widespread criticism, but was promptly withdrawn for amendment when Governor Whitman announced his intention to veto it. The obsolete coroner system was abolished, and, in the interest of a further increase of efficiency and economy in the State government, effort was also made to reorganize the various State departments and commissions. The convention that is to revise the State constitution met at Albany on April 6 for its opening session. Ex-Senator Elihu Root was selected presiding officer, and made a notable address. Adjournment was then taken until April 26, for the purpose of the appointment of committees and the further perfecting of the organization.



DID THEY WANT TO VOTE? THEY DID!  
From the *World* (New York)





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CURTIS GUILD



NELSON W. ALDRICH



W. R. NELSON



FRED. W. TAYLOR

*Distinguished Dead*

During the past month death has claimed a large number of Americans eminent in varied fields of activity. A portrait of Hopkinson Smith, distinguished and successful in three callings, forms the frontispiece of this number of the REVIEW. A fellow-craftsman of Mr. Smith's, Karl Bitter, who had taken high rank among American sculptors, was killed by an automobile in New York City. Among men of political prominence, there have passed away former Senator Nelson W. Aldrich, of Rhode Island, who for a long period in the recent past dominated the councils of his party at Washington, and the Hon. Curtis Guild, of Massachusetts, who had been Governor of his State and Ambassador to Russia. William R. Nelson, owner and editor of the *Kansas City Star*, was esteemed as one of the most influential news-

paper proprietors in the country and had a large personal following in the Middle West. Prof. Thomas R. Lounsbury, of Yale, was a great English scholar and Shakespearian authority, and Prof. Charles Richmond Henderson, of the University of Chicago, was not only extremely popular as an academic officer, but was one of the nation's leading authorities on the dependent and defective classes and on methods of public and private relief. Of Frederick W. Taylor, the efficiency engineer, it has been said that his methods wrought revolutionary changes in the steel industry. The name of Morgan Robertson, author of short sea stories, is familiar to all magazine readers. It is unusual in our editorial experience to be called upon to chronicle the loss of so many real leaders of our national life and thought within a single month.



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MORGAN ROBERTSON



Photograph by Bain

KARL BITTER



CHARLES R. HENDERSON



THOMAS R. LOUNSBURY

# RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From March 20 to April 20, 1915)

## *The Last Ten Days of March*

March 21.—Major-Gen. Sir William Robert Robertson succeeds Major-General Murray as Chief of the Imperial General Staff of the British Army.

Two German airships drop a score of bombs in the suburbs of Paris, during early morning.

Russian troops occupying Memel, East Prussia, are forced to withdraw by the Germans.

March 22.—The great Austrian fortress of Przemyśl, in Galicia, is surrendered to the Russian army under General Dmitriev, after a siege begun in the early weeks of the war; the prisoners include General von Kusmanek and 120,000 other men.

The Netherlands government protests to Germany against the seizure of two steamships by a German submarine on March 18; the cargoes of foodstuffs were confiscated as contraband.

The Italian parliament adjourns until May, after passing a national defense law.

March 23.—Reports from Urumiah, in northwestern Persia, describe the persecution and massacre of native Christians by Turkish soldiers.

March 24.—The Canadian Parliament votes \$100,000,000 for war purposes.

The captain of the German cruiser *Dresden* (sunk on March 14) declares that the vessel was attacked while anchored in neutral Chilean waters, and was self-destructed to prevent capture.

March 25.—French Alpine chasseurs carry the heights of Hartmans-Weilerkopf, an important strategical position in Upper Alsace, after an assault lasting three days.

A Russian official statement describes the carrying by assault of an important position in Lupkow Pass, in the Carpathians.

Russian troops in Persia (according to a Russian statement) severely defeat a force of Turks.

The Dutch steamer *Medea*, bound for London with a cargo of oranges, is sunk by a German submarine.

March 26.—East Prussia is again cleared of Russian troops; Russia maintains that the expedition to Memel was merely a raid and accomplished its purpose.

An uprising of 10,000 tribesmen in northwestern India is suppressed by native troops.

March 27.—The British passenger steamer *Falaba* is sunk off Wales by a German submarine; 111 lives are lost (including an American) and 113 are saved.

March 28.—The Russian Black Sea fleet bombards the forts at the entrance to the Bosphorus.

March 30.—The United States sends to Great Britain and France a note protesting against certain features of the plan of the Allies to cut off German trade, and stating its expectation that reparation will be made for every violation of neutral rights.

March 31.—Discussion regarding the prohibition of traffic in liquors (in order to increase the

workmen's output of war material) assumes large proportions in England; King George announces his intention to set the example by forbidding the consumption of alcoholic liquor in the royal household.

## *The First Ten Days of April*

April 1.—Prisoners in Germany are said to total 812,808,—509,350 Russians, 242,364 French, 40,267 Belgians, and 20,827 British.

April 3.—Several thousand irregular Bulgarian soldiers cross the border and attack Serbian guards; after an all-day fight they are repulsed by Serbian troops.

April 4.—An Austrian statement admits withdrawal from the Beskid region of the Carpathians, in the face of large Russian reinforcements released from the siege of Przemyśl.

April 5.—A Danish compilation of Prussian casualty lists totals 1,133,081 killed, wounded, and missing (exclusive of Bavarian, Saxon, Württemberg, and naval losses); most of the wounded have, of course, returned to the front.

April 7.—The captain of the German cruiser *Prinz Eitel Friedrich*, making repairs at Newport News since March 10, decides not to attempt to pass waiting British and French cruisers; the ship will be interned by the United States Government until the end of the war.

The German Admiralty announces that the new submarine *U-29*, commanded by the famous Captain Weddigen, is regarded as lost; a British statement on March 26 had claimed its destruction.

The Russian Government extends municipal autonomy to all towns in Poland.

April 8.—An unsuccessful attempt is made to assassinate the new Sultan of Egypt, Hussein Kamel, by a young native in Cairo.

An official French statement enumerates many gains by the French since April 4 in attacks on the German line between the Meuse and the Moselle, near Verdun.

Germany agrees to indemnify the owners of the American sailing vessel *William P. Frye*, sunk by the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* on January 28.

French troops carry by assault the important position of Les Esparges, which dominates the plain of the Woevre.

## *The Second Ten Days of April*

April 11.—The German Ambassador at Washington makes public a memorandum delivered to the State Department, criticizing the attitude of the United States toward the shipment of war materials and toward British treatment of American trade with Germany.

The converted cruiser *Kronprinz Wilhelm*, believed to be the only German warship on the seas, steams into Hampton Roads, Va., for repairs and supplies; the ship had roamed the North and



South Atlantic, and had touched at no port since leaving Hoboken on August 3.

The Paris *Matin* estimates that the Allies' fighting lines total 1668 miles; 544 are held by French soldiers, 31 by English, 17 by Belgian, 857 by Russian, and 219 by Serbian and Montenegrin soldiers.

April 12.—The Russian Minister of Finance states that France and England have extended credit to the amount of \$125,000,000 each, in exchange for Russian grain.

The State Department at Washington announces that Great Britain will requisition the *Wilhelmina's* cargo and reimburse the owners of the ship for the delay.

April 14.—The British official report on the victory at Neuve Chapelle (March 10-12) shows that the British lost 2527 killed and 10,284 wounded and missing; the heavy casualties were due in part to blunders by officers in the execution of orders.

British Indian troops carry intrenched positions of Turkish soldiers at Zobeir, in Mesopotamia, near the head of the Persian Gulf.

April 15.—The Netherlands steamer *Katwyk* is sunk by a submarine while anchored in the North Sea near the Dutch coast.

April 16.—The Rockefeller Foundation War Relief Commission reports that there are probably more than 25,000 cases of typhus in Serbia.

April 17.—The British submarine *E-15* is wrecked by running ashore in the Dardanelles while submerged.

The Greek steamer *Elespontos* is sunk by a submarine near the coast of Holland.

April 17-18.—British forces make important advances southeast of Ypres, in Belgium.

April 18.—The Russian General Headquarters declares that from March 19 to April 5 the Russian offensive won the principal chain of the Carpathians, on a 75-mile front between Reghetov and Volosate, capturing 70,000 Austrian prisoners.

A Turkish torpedo boat which had escaped from the Dardanelles is run ashore and destroyed while pursued by British cruisers.

Lieut. Roland G. Garros, the famous French aviator, is captured by the Germans when forced to descend within their lines.

April 20.—Premier Asquith appeals to the workmen of northeastern England to render their best services in the output of munitions of war, for upon them as much as upon the soldiers depends the success of Great Britain.

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From March 20 to April 20, 1915)

### AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

March 18.—Governor Spry vetoes the Utah Statewide prohibition bill, on the ground that the legislature was pledged to submit the question to the voters, and that the amended local option law provides a means for establishing prohibition if the voters so desire.

April 6.—William Hale Thompson (Rep.) is elected Mayor of Chicago (see page 534). . . . The seventh New York State Constitutional Convention assembles at Albany, and elects Elihu Root president. . . . The Mayor of Terre Haute, two judges, and twenty-four other men convicted of election frauds; 89 others had pleaded guilty.

April 7.—Governor Whitman signs the widowed mothers' pension bill passed by the New York legislature. . . . The Alaska House passes, by a large majority, a measure submitting prohibition to the voters.

April 10.—Announcement is made of the route of the railroad to be constructed by the Government in Alaska (see page 573).

April 14.—A bill abolishing the office of coroner in New York State is signed by Governor Whitman.

April 16.—Governor Whitman makes known his intention to veto a bill passed by the New York Legislature, permitting the working of women and children in canneries 72 hours a week instead of 66; the bill is recalled for amendment.

April 19.—The suit of William Barnes, Jr., the Republican political leader, against ex-President Roosevelt, for libel, is begun at Syracuse, N. Y.

April 20.—President Wilson addresses the members of the Associated Press at New York, emphasizing and defining the basis of neutrality in relation to the European war.

### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

March 23.—China accepts four of the Japanese demands, agreeing to obtain Japan's consent before making foreign financial, industrial, and political arrangements in Southern Manchuria.

March 24.—Elections are held throughout Japan for membership in the lower house of parliament; the supporters of Premier Okuma are returned with increased strength, while the Seiyukai or opposition party (Conservative) loses seats.

March 27.—The forces of General Villa in Mexico are unsuccessful in an attempt to take Matamoros from Carranza troops.

April 8.—Large armies representing Villa and Carranza factions come in contact at Celaya, in central Mexico; General Obregon, commanding the Carranza forces, claims a victory, while General Villa maintains that the real engagement has not yet developed.

April 15.—General Obregon reports that he has defeated General Villa a second time at Celaya, Mexico, inflicting a loss of 6000 killed and wounded and taking 8000 prisoners.

April 20.—Sir Edward Grey states in the House of Commons that the British Government favors the maintenance of equal opportunities in China for the commerce and industry of all nations; it is reported at Peking that the United States has informed China that treaty obligations with the United States must not be ignored in negotiations with Japan.

### OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

March 20.—The outlaw Piute Indians in Utah are persuaded to surrender after a conference with Brigadier-General Scott.

March 25.—The United States submarine *F-4*

meets with an accident during maneuvers in Honolulu Harbor, and sinks 300 feet to the bottom; extensive measures will be required to raise the vessel, and there is no possibility of saving the crew of twenty-one.

March 29.—Statistics made public at Washington show that 57,382 animals have been slaughtered to check the spread of the foot-and-mouth disease.

March 31.—The governors of the New York Stock Exchange remove the minimum-price restrictions in effect since the exchange reopened in December.

April 3.—The Dutch steamer *Prins Mauritz* founders during a storm off the Virginia coast; all the passengers and crew (59 persons) lose their lives.

April 5.—The heavyweight pugilistic championship of the world is won by Jess Willard, of Kansas, in the twenty-sixth round of a contest with the negro, "Jack" Johnson, at Havana.

April 11.—The great trans-Pacific steamship *Minnesota*, bound for Seattle, is stranded on a rock off the Japanese coast.

April 16.—Sixteen hundred carpenters in Chicago go on strike for increased pay.

April 20.—The Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railway Company is placed in the hands of receivers.

### OBITUARY

March 20.—Cardinal Agliardi, sub-dean of the Sacred College, 82.

March 21.—Frederick Winslow Taylor, pioneer exponent of efficiency in machine-shop practice, 59.

March 22.—Prof. H. L. Sabsovich, of New York, founder of Jewish agricultural colonies, 55.

March 23.—Dr. Alexander Cameron MacKenzie, president of Elmira College (N. Y.), 60. . . . Judge Leonard S. Roan, of the Court of Appeals of Georgia, 66.

March 24.—Morgan Robertson, the famous writer of sea tales, 53. . . . John Albee, poet and author, 82. . . . Mrs. Mary Anna Jackson, widow of Gen. Stonewall Jackson and author of his memoirs, 83.

March 25.—Major-Gen. John P. Story, U. S. A., retired, 74. . . . Henry Bacon, former Congressman from New York, 69. . . . Dr. Edward Sprague Peck, a prominent New York physician and medical critic, 67.

March 26.—Mrs. Bernard Beere, formerly a popular London actress, 59.

March 27.—Edward W. Hanley, chairman of the Ohio Democratic State Committee, 58.

March 28.—Col. William Jay, a prominent New York lawyer, 74.

March 29.—Dr. Charles R. Henderson, professor of sociology at the University of Chicago, 69. . . . J. Foster Crowell, of New York, an eminent civil engineer, 66. . . . Charles S. Kane, a law partner of Lincoln and former Chief Justice of Utah, 84.

March 30.—Sir John Cameron Lamb, the British scientist and authority on telegraphy, 69. . . . Col. M. Richard Muckle, one of Philadelphia's most prominent citizens, 89.

March 31.—Nathan Mayer (Baron) Rothschild, head of the British branch of the great banking family, 74.

April 1.—John Englis, the New York ship-builder, 82.

April 2.—Mary Garrett, philanthropist and advocate of higher education for women, 61. . . . Dr. William H. Randle, of Philadelphia, an authority on yellow fever, 62.

April 3.—William H. Jackson, former Representative from Maryland, 75. . . . Isaac Loeb Peretz, the Jewish author, 63.

April 5.—Daniel Harris, a prominent New York labor leader, 69.

April 6.—Curtis Guild, former Ambassador to Russia and Governor of Massachusetts for three terms, 55. . . . James S. Bell, a prominent Minneapolis flour merchant, 67. . . . Franz von Pausinger, the Austrian painter, 76.

April 7.—F. Hopkinson Smith, author, artist, and engineer (see frontispiece), 76.

April 8.—Prof. Friedrich Loeffler, the German scientist who discovered the diphtheria bacillus, 62.

April 9.—Prof. Thomas R. Lounsbury, of Yale, the distinguished English scholar and Shakespearean authority, 77. . . . Mgr. Charles McCready, a prominent Roman Catholic clergyman of New York, 78.

April 10.—Karl Theodore Francis Bitter, the sculptor, 47.

April 11.—Mgr. Denis J. McMahon, a prominent Roman Catholic clergyman of New York, 56. . . . Donald Nicholson, for thirty years managing editor of the New York *Tribune*, 80.

April 13.—William Rockhill Nelson, editor and publisher of the Kansas City *Star*, 74. . . . Henry W. Poor, publisher of "Poor's Manual of Railroads," 71.

April 13.—Charles William MacCord, for thirty-five years professor of mechanical drawing at Stevens Institute, 79.

April 14.—Rev. Daniel Seelye Gregory, D.D., secretary of the Bible League of North America, 83. . . . Carl Hauser, the German-American humorist, 68.

April 15.—Urban A. Woodbury, former Governor of Vermont, 76.

April 16.—Nelson W. Aldrich, former United States Senator from Rhode Island, and authority on finance and tariffs, 73.

April 17.—Alexander B. Andrews, First Vice-President of the Southern Railway, 74.

April 18.—Baron Herbert de Reuter, head of the great English news-gathering agency, 63. . . . Justice Joseph A. Burr, of the Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court, 64.

April 19.—Richard Lydekker, the British naturalist, 66. . . . General Field Marshal Oskar von Lindequist, of the German army (retired), 77.



# ANNOUNCEMENTS OF CONVENTIONS, CELEBRATIONS, AND EXPOSITIONS, 1915

## CELEBRATIONS AND EXPOSITIONS

Panama-California Exposition.....San Diego, Cal.  
Panama-Pacific International Exposition.....San Francisco, Cal.

## EDUCATIONAL GATHERINGS

Catholic Educational Association.....St. Paul, Minn.  
Catholic Summer School of America.....Cliff Haven, N. Y.  
Chautauqua Assembly.....Chautauqua, N. Y.  
International Congress of Education.....Oakland, Cal.  
Summer School of the South.....Knoxville, Tenn.

## MEETINGS OF RELIGIOUS BODIES

American Baptist Home Mission Society.....Los Angeles, Cal.  
American Missionary Association.....New Haven, Conn.  
American Unitarian Association.....Boston, Mass.  
Brotherhood of St. Andrew.....Los Angeles, Cal.  
Disciples of Christ.....Los Angeles, Cal.  
Evangelical Lutheran Church of No. America, Gen. Council.....Rock Island, Ill.  
International Lord's Day Congress.....Oakland, Cal.  
Missionary Education Movement.....  
    { Blue Ridge, N. C.  
    { Silver Bay, N. Y.  
    { Lake Geneva, Wis.  
    { Rochester, N. Y.  
National Spiritualists' Association.....Seattle, Wash.  
National Woman's Christian Temperance Union.....Los Angeles, Cal.  
Northern Baptist Convention.....Northfield, Mass.  
Northfield Conferences and Summer Schools.....Northfield, Mass.  
Presbyterian Church (North) U. S. A., General Assembly.....Rochester, N. Y.  
Presbyterian Church (South) U. S. A., General Assembly.....Newport News, Va.  
Reformed (Dutch) Church in America.....Asbury Park, N. J.  
Reformed (German) Church in the United States.....Dayton, Ohio  
Reformed Presbyterian Church of No. America, General Synod.....Parrissus, Pa.  
Southern Baptist Convention.....Houston, Texas  
United Presbyterian Church of No. America, Gen. Assembly.....Loveland, Cal.  
United Norwegian Lutheran Church of America.....Minneapolis, Minn.  
Universalist General Convention.....Pasadena, Cal.  
Woman's Congress of Missions.....San Francisco, Cal.  
World's Bible Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
World's Christian Endeavor Convention.....Chicago, Ill.  
Young Women's Christian Association.....Los Angeles, Cal.

## SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL GATHERINGS

American Academy of Medicine.....San Francisco, Cal.  
American Bar Association.....Columbus, Ohio.  
American Climatological Association.....Salt Lake City, Utah  
American Electrochemical Association.....San Francisco, Cal.  
American Historical Association.....Washington, D. C.  
American Institute of Electrical Engineers.....Deer Park, Md.  
American Library Association.....Berkeley, Cal.  
American Mining Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
American Pharmaceutical Association.....San Francisco, Cal.  
American Public Health Association.....Rochester, N. Y.  
American Society of International Law.....Washington, D. C.

## SECRETARY

Francis W. Howard, 1651 East Main Street, Columbus, Ohio.  
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George B. Utley, 78 East Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.  
Alexander R. Craig, M.D., 535 N. Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.  
J. F. Callbreath, Majestic Building, Denver, Colorado.  
William E. Day, 74 East 12th Street, Chicago, Ill.  
Prof. S. M. Gunn, 755 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.  
Dr. James Brown Scott, 2 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

American Society of Mechanical Engineers.....New York City  
 Association of Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations.....Berkeley, Cal.  
 Association of American Physicians.....Washington, D. C.  
 Clinical Congress of Surgeons of North America.....Boston, Mass.  
 International Congress of Genealogy.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 International Engineering Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 International Press Congress.....Minneapolis, Minn.  
 National Association of Retail Druggists.....Chicago, Ill.  
 National Medical Association.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 Pan-American Medical Congress.....Washington, D. C.  
 Pan-American Scientific Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 Panama-Pacific Dental Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 Panama-Pacific Historical Congress.....Dallas, Texas  
 Southern Medical Association.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 World's Optometric Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.

#### ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONFERENCES

American Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality.....Philadelphia, Pa.  
 American Economic Association.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 American Home Economics Association.....Seattle, Wash.  
 American Peace Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 American Prison Association.....Oakland, Cal.  
 Atlantic Deepwater Waterways Association.....Savannah, Ga.  
 Congress on Good Roads.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 International Congress of Farm Women.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 International Immigration Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 International Purity Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration.....Mohonk Lake, N. Y.  
 National Assn. for Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.....Seattle, Wash.  
 National Conference of Charities and Correction.....Baltimore, Md.  
 National Conference on City Planning.....Detroit, Mich.  
 National Congress of Mothers & Parent-Teacher Associations.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 National Conservation Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 National Irrigation Congress.....{ Stockton, Fresno,  
 { Sacramento, San Francisco  
 National Municipal League.....Dayton, Ohio  
 Pan-American Financial Conference.....Washington, D. C.  
 Southern Sociological Congress.....Houston, Texas  
 World Court Congress.....Cleveland, Ohio

#### OTHER OCCASIONS

American Bankers' Association.....Seattle, Wash.  
 American Federation of Labor.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 American Institute of Banking.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 Anti-Saloon League of America.....Atlantic City, N. J.  
 Associated Advertising Clubs of America.....Chicago, Ill.  
 Farmers' National Congress.....Omaha, Nebr.  
 General Federation of Women's Clubs.....Portland, Ore.  
 Grand Army of the Republic, National Encampment.....Washington, D. C.  
 International Sunshine Society.....New York City  
 National American Woman Suffrage Association.....Washington, D. C.  
 National Association of Manufacturers.....New York City  
 National Electric Light Association.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 National Negro Business League.....Boston, Mass.  
 Sons of American Revolution (National Society).....Portland, Ore.  
 Sons of Confederate Veterans.....Richmond, Va.  
 Sons of Veterans, U. S. A.....Washington, D. C.  
 United Confederate Veterans.....Richmond, Va.  
 United Daughters of the Confederacy.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 United Spanish War Veterans.....Scranton, Pa.  
 Universal Congress of Esperanto.....San Francisco, Cal.  
 World's Insurance Congress.....San Francisco, Cal.

December 7-10  
 August 11-13  
 May 11-13  
 October 25  
 July 28-30  
 September 20-25  
 July 5-10  
 August 30  
 August 24-26  
 June 17-19  
 Dec. 27-Jan. 8  
 Aug. 30-Sept. 9  
 July 19-21  
 November 8-11  
 July 16-24

November 10-12  
 August 9  
 August 18-20  
 October 6-9  
 October 2-7  
 August 2  
 Aug. 31-Sept. 3  
 August 9-15  
 July 18-24  
 May 19-21  
 July 14-16  
 May 12-19  
 June 7-9  
 May 20-22

September 13-20  
 November 17-19  
 May 24  
 May 8-11  
 May 12-14

September 6-10  
 November 8  
 August 18  
 July 6-10  
 June 20-24  
 Sept. 28-Oct. 2  
 June 1-4  
 Sept. 27-Oct. 3  
 May 20-22  
 December 14-19  
 May 25-26  
 June 7-11  
 August 18-20  
 July 19  
 May 31-June 3  
 September 29-30  
 June 1-3  
 October 20  
 Aug. 30-Sept. 1  
 October 4-16

Lester G. French, 29 West 39th Street, New York City.  
 Dr. George M. Kober, 1819 Q Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.  
 A. D. Ballou, Manager, 30 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill.  
 W. A. Catell, Foxcroft Building, San Francisco, Cal.  
 Walter Williams, Director, University of Missouri, Mo.  
 Thomas H. Potts, 122 South Michigan Boulevard, Chicago, Ill.  
 W. G. Alexander, M.D., 14 Webster Place, Orange, N. J.  
 Dr. Seale Harris, Mobile, Ala.  
 E. E. Arrington, 29 Clinton Avenue, South, Rochester, N. Y.  
 Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore, Md.  
 Allyn A. Young, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.  
 Anna Barrows, Teachers' College, Columbia University, N. Y. City.  
 George L. Sehon, 1086 Baxter Avenue, Louisville, Ky.  
 Wilfred H. Schoff, Crozer Building, Philadelphia, Pa.  
 B. S. Steadwell, President, La Crosse, Wis.  
 H. C. Phillips, Mohonk Lake, N. Y.  
 Charles J. Hatfield, 105 East 22nd Street, New York City.  
 William T. Cross, 315 Plymouth Court, Chicago, Ill.  
 Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress Street, Boston, Mass.  
 Thomas R. Shipt, Riggs Building, Washington, D. C.  
 Arthur Hooker, Stockton, Cal.  
 Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 705 No. American Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Secretary of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.  
 J. E. McCulloch, Nashville, Tenn.  
 John Hays Hammond (Chairman), 71 Broadway, New York City.

Fred E. Farnsworth, 5 Nassau Street, New York City.  
 Frank Morrison, 801 G Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.  
 George E. Allen, 5 Nassau Street, New York City.  
 P. A. Baker, D.D. (General Superintendent, Westerville, Ohio.  
 P. S. Flores, 141 West Maryland Street, Indianapolis, Ind.  
 O. D. Hill, Kendall, West Virginia.  
 Mrs. Eugene Kelley, 508 Park Avenue, Charlotte, N. C.  
 George A. Newman (Adjutant-General), Des Moines, Ia.  
 Nellie E. C. Furman, 96 Fifth Avenue, New York City.  
 Mrs. Charles Foster Camp, 505 Fifth Avenue, New York City.  
 George S. Boudinot, 30 Church Street, New York City.  
 T. C. Martin, 29 West 39th Street, New York City.  
 Emmett J. Scott, Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Ala.  
 A. Howard Clark, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.  
 Nathan Bedford Forrest (Adjutant-in-Chief), Memphis, Tenn.  
 Major-Gen. William E. Mickle (Adjutant-General), New Orleans, La.  
 H. H. Hammer, Reading, Pa.  
 Mrs. F. M. Williams, Newton, N. C.  
 Arthur C. Rogers (Adjutant-General), Cleveland, Ohio.  
 Dr. C. H. Fessenden, 34 Pelham Street, Newton Centre, Mass.



# CURRENT TOPICS, AS SEEN BY THE CARTOONISTS



THE COMMON ENEMY, BACKED TO THE WALL AT LAST  
From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

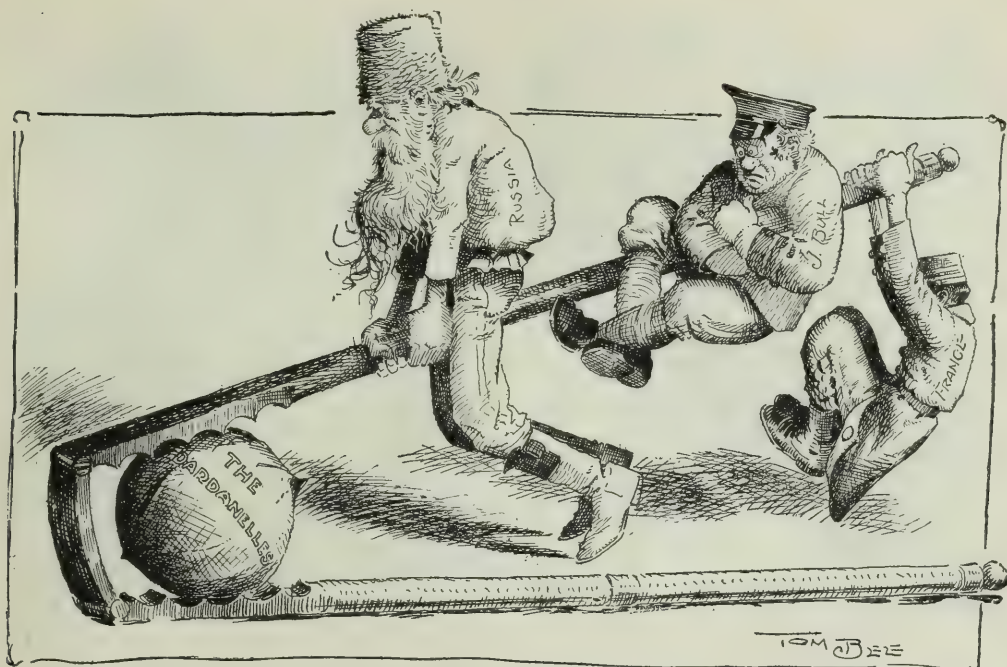
THE world-wide anti-drink crusade, referred to in the above cartoon, is dealt with in our editorial department (page 521).



WE HAVE AT LEAST ONE SINCERE FRIEND IN EUROPE  
From the *Evening Dispatch* (Columbus, Ohio)



MR. BRYAN STIRRING THINGS UP ON THE MEXICAN  
BORDER AGAIN  
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)



THE DARDANELLES—A HARD ONE TO CRACK  
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

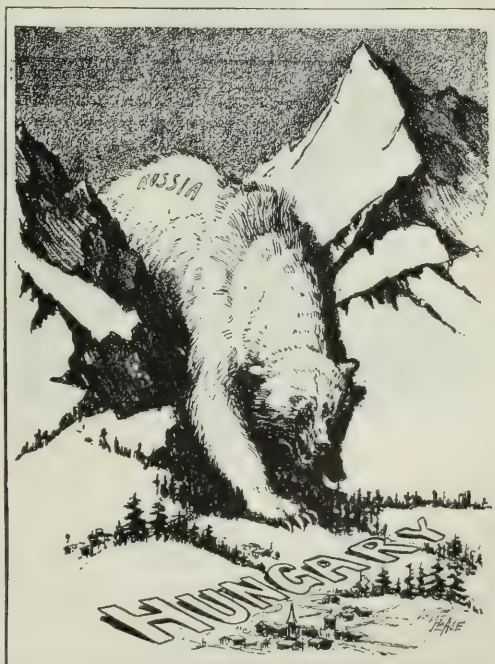
The forcing of the Dardanelles has been found by no means an easy task for the Allies. It may be that before it is accomplished the diplomatic dickering with Italy will finally be done with, and the Russian bear will doubtless have progressed still further on his onward march into Hungary.



VICARIOUS GENEROSITY

KAISER WILHELM, TO ITALY: "Should you want some more feathers, I know of a two-headed eagle."

From *Punch* (London)



OVER CARPATHIAN SNOWS  
From the *Evening News* (Newark)





## CHINA'S FUTURE

JOHN BULL, TO UNCLE SAM: "We cannot allow Japan to act like this with China. The Germans will positively have to go back there again!"

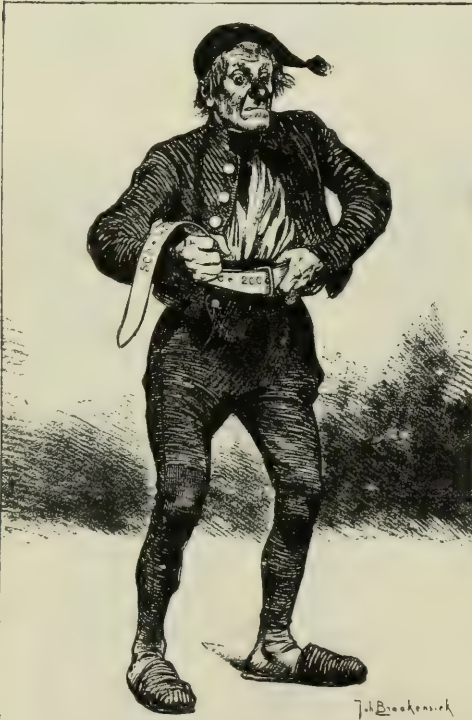
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



## THE FLAG MASQUERADE

ENGLISH MERCHANT SKIPPER: "To-day I have to cross the Irish Sea; now I wonder which of these neutral masks should an honest old seaman wear?"

From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)



## GERMAN MICHEL IS GRADUALLY DRAWING HIS BELT TIGHTER AND TIGHTER

(A Dutch view of economic conditions in Germany.)

From *De Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam)



## SOLDIERS ALL

TOMMY (home from the front, to disaffected workman): "What'd you think o' me, mate, if I struck for extra pay in the middle of an action? Well, that's what you've been doing."

(This cartoon refers to English labor troubles which have delayed the manufacture of war munitions)

From *Punch* (London)

# HOW OUR FARMS HAVE TURNED THE FINANCIAL TIDE

BY HON. DAVID F. HOUSTON

*Secretary of Agriculture*

IT is a common saying in this country that Providence takes care of the American nation and the small boy. Certain facts in connection with two of our financial crises lend a bit of justification to this saying.

In August of 1914 the greater part of the world became engaged in war. More completely than ever before in the history of the world were trade and financial relations disturbed. For a time the shock was paralyzing. After the recovery from the shock financiers were still much concerned as to how to deal with the situation. In this country the condition was acute. It seemed that the commodity, cotton, on which we had depended to pay a large part of our trade balance would not be exported in very considerable quantities. Our largest consumers were among the belligerents, some of whom could not get cotton, others of whom were not in position to consume the usual supply. We were due to pay Europe by January, 1915, a floating indebtedness of at least \$300,000,000, and more would follow after the opening of the year. How were we to meet the obligations with cotton on the decline? The facts are illuminating.

Between August, 1914, and February 1, 1915, we exported a total of \$1,157,000,000 worth of commodities, and imported a total of \$771,000,000, showing a favorable balance of \$384,000,000. Of the total value exported of \$1,157,000,000, \$662,000,000 were represented by agricultural commodities, and \$495,000,000 by manufactured commodities. Between August, 1913, and February 1, 1914, of the total exports, \$616,000,000 were manufactured products.

The total value of agricultural products exported in this period was \$729,000,000, but the cotton exports in that year for that period were \$443,000,000, and the food and meat products only \$286,000,000, while from August, 1914, to February 1, 1915, the cotton exports were only \$168,000,000, and the other agricultural products were \$494,000,000, so that it may safely be said that the farmers of the Middle West came to the assistance in this second crisis

and enabled the nation not only to pay its floating indebtedness but to secure a margin.

## AN EARLIER EXAMPLE: THE RESUMPTION OF SPECIE PAYMENTS

In 1875 the Congress of the United States decreed that specie payments should be resumed January 1, 1879. It is one thing to decree a thing; it is another thing to insure the execution of the decree. There were many doubters as to the wisdom of the resumption act for many reasons. Many people thought resumption could not be brought about. It now appears that it probably would not have been possible to resume specie payments January 1, 1879, had it not been for remarkable agricultural developments in the Middle West resulting in a large excess of exports over imports and consequent demand on Europe for gold. From 1870 to 1875, inclusive, the nation imported \$3,324,000,000 worth of commodities, and exported \$2,901,000,000, creating for the period an unfavorable balance of \$423,000,000.

In this period the nation exported \$757,000,000 more of agricultural commodities than it imported. This situation did not furnish much ground for optimism on the part of those who were looking for resumption. In the period, however, from 1876 to 1881, inclusive, the nation imported \$3,103,000,000 worth of commodities, and exported \$4,287,000,000 worth, giving a net favorable balance of \$1,184,000,000. In this period the nation exported \$1,852,000,000 more of agricultural commodities than it imported, or an excess greater by \$1,095,000,000 than that in the preceding period. This great change occurred in spite of the fact that the value of cotton exports in the latter period was only \$1,169,000,000, as against \$1,245,000,000 in the preceding period. The large increase in the excess was due mainly to the development of the cereal and live-stock farming in the Middle West, which began to show itself in large ways between 1872 and 1876. In no year prior to 1872 had the value of wheat exported exceeded \$47,000,000, the value of corn \$15,000,000, and the value of



meat and meat products \$40,000,000. In 1874 the value of the wheat exported was \$101,000,000, of corn \$25,000,000, and of meat and meat products \$70,000,000. The total export value of these commodities in the period from '70 to '75, inclusive, was \$762,000,000. The total in the period from '76 to '81, inclusive, was \$1,586,000,000, or an increase of \$824,000,000. It may without exaggeration be said that the Western farmer made possible and permanent the resumption of specie payments in 1879.

#### RECENT EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

It is worth noting that this nation is still an exporter on a large scale of agricultural products, and that there has been a growing balance in its favor in the interchange of agricultural and forest products. So much misapprehension has been created and so many alarms raised that it is worth while having in mind just what the facts are. In 1913 the excess of exports over imports was \$652,000,000. The excess of the exports of agricultural products over the imports was \$333,000,000.

In 1913, the United States exported \$1,123,000,000 of farm and forest products, while it imported \$815,000,000 worth, practically all of which,—except sugar and molasses, with a value of \$105,000,000, dairy products worth \$10,700,000, and live animals worth \$9,600,000,—were non-competitive products, such as tea, coffee, India rubber, vegetable fibers, tropical fruits, and silk.

Taking our foreign trade in foodstuffs, we find that in 1914 we imported \$180,000,000 worth of competitive products, including corn, live animals, dairy products, meat products, and sugar, and exported \$296,000,000 worth, including corn, flour, and meat products,—a balance in favor of the American farmer of competitive food products of over \$116,000,000. We imported of non-competitive food products, \$183,000,000, the principal item of which was coffee. But this figure was many times offset by our exportation of non-competitive farm products other than foodstuffs, of which cotton is chief.

#### AGRICULTURAL TRADE WITH SOUTH AMERICA AND CANADA

Even in our South American trade, of which we hear a great deal, we are exporting more farm and forest products to that continent than we import. Much has been said about the importation of Argentine corn and Argentine beef. It is worth while to

understand the exact situation. The total corn crop of Argentina is about 195,000,000 bushels. In 1912 the United States produced over 3,100,000,000 bushels, and in 1913 two and a half billion bushels. The shortage in the crop of 1913 as compared with that of 1912 was over 600,000,000 bushels. The total corn crop of Argentina was less than one-third of this shortage. A very small fraction of this total reaches the United States. The European markets are strong competitors for all agricultural products from South America, and receive the greater part of that continent's surplus.

The importation of corn from all countries, including Argentina, for the year ending October 31, 1914, was 16,000,000 bushels, or seven-tenths of one per cent. of the domestic crop. During this same period the United States exported 11,000,000 bushels. The excess of imports, therefore, was 5,000,000 bushels, or about two-tenths of one per cent. of our own crop. The Corn Products Refining Company of New York uses about 40,000,000 bushels of corn annually in the manufacture of corn food products, and the greater part of the Argentine corn imported was used in the manufacture of these products. As a matter of fact, the importation of this corn cuts no figure in our domestic price. This year we shall export much more corn than we import.

Even in our trade with Canada, from which those who are concerned with agricultural competition might apprehend danger, we discover that in 1914 we exported to Canada \$38,600,000 worth of agricultural products,—including fruits \$12,600,000, meats \$4,750,000, wheat \$17,500,000, corn \$3,200,000, while we imported \$10,700,000 worth of live animals, and \$10,600,000 of meats, leaving a balance in favor of American farmers of \$17,600,000, as against the balance in their favor (under the tariff act of 1909) for the year 1911 of \$12,640,000.

It seems improbable that the importation of corn and meats will very largely increase in the near future and that they will get very far beyond the American seaboard. With improvements which are steadily being made in American agriculture under the stimulus of a number of helpful agencies, including the Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges, the chances for successful competition from abroad will become smaller and smaller. We must remember that not over 45 per cent. of our arable land is yet under cultivation, and that not more than 12 per cent. of that is yielding full returns.

# GERMANY ON THE DEFENSIVE, EAST AND WEST

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. A NEW PHASE

**I**F one were to undertake to summarize in a single statement the salient detail of the April fighting, it would necessarily be by asserting that, for the first time in the Great War, Germany accepted the defensive rôle in the East and the West. For the first time in nine months of struggle, her efforts were confined to meeting and halting the offensive of her three great enemies, France, Russia, and Britain.

Such an assertion carries with it more than might appear at first. Bear in mind that the whole German military system is based upon the offensive, not the defensive, that Bernhardi and all his predecessors had preached the offensive as the only real method by which Germany could win; recall that hitherto Germany had rested in the West to redouble her energies in the East, and vice versa, and it becomes clear that, so far as it was now possible to judge, the weight of the numbers of her enemies was at last beginning to tell. The coming of British levies, the completion of the organization of French reserves, the never-failing stream of Russian troops,—these circumstances, fortified by the growing failure of Austrian resistance, were combining to force the Kaiser into the position of holding his own lines, not endeavoring to break those of his opponents.

Out of Germany, officially and unofficially, too, there began to flow new suggestions of a drawn battle, of a return to peace on terms far different from those which were in the minds of the Berlin populace when Von Kluck approached Paris, and Von Hindenburg won Tannenberg. Not yet was there any suggestion of a doubt as to German ability to maintain the defensive, to hold what she had won, to make a defense lasting over years and exacting a toll from her enemies in life and treasure beyond their endurance. But the dream of "world power" had vanished, patently vanished, however distant was the day when "downfall," Bernhardi's alternative, would even be thought of in Berlin.

Coincident with the disclosure of this German frame of mind was the growing confidence revealed in official statements from Paris and London. A French review of the first six months of the campaign supplied a wealth of detail to demonstrate the deterioration of German armies under the terrible strain of earlier offensive operations, the frightful mortality among officers, the lessening efficiency of new levies. In the minds of French military observers, set forth in these statements, the German machine was beginning to crack under the strain.

British opinion was little different. To Field-Marshal Sir John French was attributed the assertion that an early end to the war was now to be expected. The British success at Neuve Chapelle, somewhat tarnished by official admission of bad management which lessened the extent of the victory that might have been achieved, and increased the casualty list, was accepted as proof that the German line could be pierced. French and British observers alike agreed that the Allies had established a decisive superiority of numbers in the West, agreed in the declaration that Germany was already approaching the limit of her reserves and beginning to suffer from the prodigality with which she had used up men and officers in her opening bids for decision West and East.

Such statements, necessarily partisan, could hardly be accepted as final, yet to support them was the unmistakable fact that for two months the Allies had been on the offensive. Champagne, Neuve Chapelle, St. Mihiel, Alsace, the stupendous conflict in the Carpathians following the fall of the fortress of Przemyśl,—all were the result of the offensive moves of the Allies; in all of them advantages, local or considerable, had been harvested by the foes of Germany. If no really conclusive or far-reaching success had been brought home from Flanders to Switzerland, in every case German power had been patently strained to retain a position or regain some portion of ground lost to Allied attack.



Americans, their memory naturally stirred by the anniversary of Appomattox, not unnaturally recalled the Civil War period and for them the new situation repeated that of the Confederacy after Gettysburg and Vicksburg, —and Gettysburg and Vicksburg in the Great War were the Marne and Przemyśl. The victories of Grant and Meade demonstrated that the South could not win. To Americans the meaning of the later Allied success was equally unmistakable, clearly analogous.

## II. PRZEMYSL

The surrender of Przemyśl, on March 22, was the most considerable triumph on the Allied side of the whole war, save for the defensive victory at the Marne. In a single hour the German assertion that Russian military power was on the verge of collapse vanished in thin air. Since Bazaine laid down his arms at Metz in 1870, Europe had seen no such triumph. Russian statistics reported the capture of 3000 officers, 117,000 men, 1010 cannon. At Antwerp, Germany had captured a fortress, not an army; at Przemyśl, Russia had taken a host and fortress at one blow.

On the moral side it was impossible to exaggerate the effect of the Russian victory. All German efforts in the stupendous winter campaign toward the Vistula and the Niemen had been directed to an effort to break Russia's hold upon Galicia. The huge losses at Lodz and at the Bzura, the splendid victory at the Mazurian Lakes, had been attempts to compel the Russians to recall from Galicia the masses which were beating down Austrian military power. The failure of all this effort, both to relieve Austria and to take Warsaw and the line of the Vistula, was now clear.

On the military side the effect was even greater. While Austria held Przemyśl, which commanded the main trunk line east and west in Galicia, Russian communications were interrupted, Russian armies along the Carpathians in peril. At Vicksburg Grant had to deal with Pemberton in his front, with Johnston in his rear. The parallel was perfect, the outcome identical. What the Mississippi was to the North, the Cracow-Lemberg railroad was to Russia. With the loss of Vicksburg the Southern frontier recoiled to the eastward; Grant resumed his work at Chattanooga, the Grand Duke Nicholas at the Carpathians.

Russian victory automatically released

above 200,000 veteran troops for active service at the true front, the mountain ridges to the west. How grave was the necessity of the two Kaisers to prevent such a release, their combined efforts in recent months had demonstrated. Apart from the tremendous efforts of the Germans in Poland and East Prussia, the German General Staff had sought directly to aid the Austrians. German corps had been sent to Bukovina, had flowed back over the Crownland and retaken the capital, Czernovitz, had turned north toward Lemberg, and, approaching Stanislaw and Halisz in a wide, swinging attempt to envelop the Russians, had crossed the Dniester and the Pruth.

Other German corps had made their appearance on the crests of the Carpathians, and, with their help, the Russians had been pushed east to the foothills of these mountains. In December a sortie from Przemyśl had brought the two Austrian armies within twenty-five miles of each other. But the effort had failed. The failure, too, had decided the fate of the fortress. As Metz, an impregnable fortress, had fallen because a field army of 200,000 had been driven in upon the forts and no provision for its maintenance had been made, so Przemyśl succumbed to hunger, while its forts were unshaken.

In the closing days cats had been sold for \$1.50 each, dogs for \$5. The correspondents who entered with the Russians described the sufferings of the army with great detail. Mismanagement, neglect of the men by officers who continued to live in luxury, were among the stories sent forth, but sent forth by unfriendly correspondents and denied by the Austrian Government. The last terrible sortie, made chiefly by Hungarians, was described as a wilful sacrifice and the reports excited anger in Budapest.

But above details, open to challenge, rose the solid fact. One of the greatest fortresses in Europe had fallen to Russia. Russian hold upon Galicia was now complete, the Slav frontier had been carried to the Carpathians, Russia was bound now to make a final effort to penetrate the mountain barrier and reach the Hungarian Plain. For Austria the moral effect of the defeat was desolating. New rumors of applications for a separate peace filled the press of Rome, of London, and of Paris. Even Berlin did not attempt to disguise the critical nature of the battle now opening in the Carpathians.

Most important was the fact that the Russian success made a new demand upon Ger-

man military resources. New corps must be sent to the Carpathians and were sent. While the pressure upon the West was gaining week by week and new allied offensive efforts were breaking out from the North Sea to the Jura, the critical situation in Hungary was making a demand upon Germany that could not be ignored, for political as well as military reasons. Viewed from the military or the moral effect, the taking of Przemyśl was a landmark in the progress of the war.

### III. IN THE CARPATHIANS

A simple way to describe the Carpathian battleground is to use the parallel of the Central American isthmus connecting the two Americas. For purposes of the illustration, the two continents may be compared to the two masses of mountains, the one separating Bukovina from Transylvania, the other the several ranges south of Cracow, known as the Tatra. Between these two masses of mountains, the Tatra rising nearly to 9000 feet, the others to 6000, and made up of successive ridges, is the narrow isthmus of the Central Carpathians, a single ridge separating the Hungarian from the Galician Plain.

At the lowest and narrowest point in the Central Carpathians, corresponding perfectly to Panama, is the Dukla Pass, over which goes the main road from Hungary to Galicia. At its summit this pass is under 1500 feet above the sea level and little more than 500 above the level of the plains. A little to the southeast is the Lupkow Pass, somewhat higher, which is followed by the Przemyśl-Budapest railroad, a local, not a trunk line. Still farther to the southeast, for the mountain range runs from northwest to southeast, is the Uzok Pass, the highest and longest of the three most commonly mentioned in the battle news. Over this goes a highroad and another light railroad from Budapest to Lemberg. Finally still further to the southeast, suggesting the Nicaragua crossing in Central America, is the Beskid or Verecke Pass, much more difficult, much longer than the other three, and carrying the main railroad line between Budapest and Lemberg.

In December, when the Russians had driven the Austrians out of Galicia for the second time, Russian cavalry crossed the Dukla and reached the Hungarian Plain. Russian infantry penetrated several of the other passes. But reinforced by the Germans, new Austrian armies returned to the



MAP OF THE SOUTHEASTERN WAR AREA



battle and drove the Russians north and east of the mountain crests, save at the Dukla, where the Russians hung on. From December to March the fighting in the Carpathians was steady and desperate. By the time Przemyśl fell, the Austrians had succeeded in debouching from the Lupkow, Uzok, and Beskid Passes and were in the upper valleys of the San, the Dneister, and the Stryj on the Galician side of the Carpathians.

In this time the objective of Austro-German strategy had been to relieve Przemyśl; that of Russian strategy had been to hold back the Austro-German hosts until the capture of the Galician fortress should release the besieging army and thus give them a decisive advantage in numbers. Four months of fighting, conceivably the most desperate fighting of the whole war up to that time, of battles fought in snowdrifts and over mountains turned to glaciers by the winter storms, ended in Russian success. Ground they had lost, they were now well east of the summits of the range, but Przemyśl had not been relieved.

Once Przemyśl fell, the Russian plan was clear. Five or six corps, now released, flowed up the Carpathian passes, cleared the Dukla and began to enter Hungary along the headwaters of smaller tributaries of the Theiss, the Ondava, and the Laborc, reached the crest of the Lupkow and approached the left flank of the Austro-German forces in the Uzok. But in the Beskid they made little real progress, on April 20 they were still well east of the summit of the range here, and Austrian bulletins were claiming success in an Austro-German offensive at this point.

Strategically the two operations were difficult to follow or to describe. What seemed to be the purposes of the two contending forces was this: The Russians were endeavoring to cross the mountains, enter the Hungarian Plain by the Dukla and Lupkow Passes, and strike the rear and lines of communications of the Austro-German forces defending the Uzok and Beskid Passes, interrupting their connection with Budapest. The Austro-German forces were attempting to reach the Galician Plain by the Uzok and Beskid Passes and cut the Russian communications with Lemberg. A Russian success would compel the retreat of all the Austro-German forces from the whole Carpathian front to the Hungarian Plain. An Austro-German advance would equally imperil the Russian offensive to the west.

Measured by the conflicting reports issued from Petrograd and Vienna, the situation

on April 20 seemed about this: The Russian offensive was slowly but steadily creeping down the Hungarian slopes at the Dukla and the Lupkow, was attacking fiercely with slight progress at the Uzok, and was on the defensive but successfully holding its ground east of the Beskid in the upper Dneister Valley. Such a situation, if it continued, would ultimately bring the Russians in the rear of the Austro-German troops to the east of the Carpathians and compel them to abandon the defense of the Uzok and Beskid Passes.

But in the third week of April there was an evident slackening of Russian advance, due, according to Russian reports, to weather conditions, resulting, said Vienna and Berlin, from the repulse of tremendous Russian attacks all along the line, which had cost the Russians above half a million lives. Petrograd and Vienna agreed that the struggle was the greatest in history and that more than 3,000,000 men were engaged in a battle-line exceeding a hundred miles in front. For the rest, it was not yet clear that there had been any decision, despite initial and considerable Russian advance, although on April 19 a Russian official summary of operation to date claimed the capture of 70,000 Austrians and substantial success all along the line.

#### IV. WHAT RUSSIAN VICTORY WOULD MEAN

It remains now to examine the Battle of the Carpathians from the political side. After the fall of Przemyśl, German military writers conceded that the conflict might conceivably decide the issue of the whole war. They were thinking, unmistakably, of the political, even more than the military consequences. To go back a century, something of the same moral consequences that might follow a Russian victory at the Carpathians did actually flow from the victory of Wellington over Soult in the not dissimilar Battle of the Pyrenees.

The entrance of a hostile army into France, the occupation of a considerable region of the Empire, was the first signal for internal disaffection. All the opponents of Napoleon took courage and began to make their voices heard. In Bordeaux there were prompt evidences of a royalist reaction, the first symptom that the French nation was no longer united against the enemies of the great Emperor and unlikely to repeat the national uprising of 1792.



Medem Photo Service

UZOK PASS, THE HIGHEST AND THE LONGEST OF THE PASSES IN THE CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS WHERE THE RECENT BATTLES HAVE BEEN RAGING

The arrival of a Russian army in the Hungarian Plain might have a similar effect upon the Hungarian people, who had borne the burden of the Austrian campaigns, suffered incalculable losses in all the heavy defeats. Time and again as the war progressed, ever more and more unfavorably to Austria, the suggestion of a separate peace made by Hungary was heard. By such a peace Hungary might hope to retain Transylvania, marked out by Rumanian patriots as their share of the spoils, might even hope to hold Fiume and a window on the Adriatic.

Once Russian armies were in the Hungarian Plain, it was easy to forecast the sweep of Cossack and Kirghiz cavalry over the fertile regions, which are the granary of the Empire and the hope of Austria and Germany for the coming harvest. Even if Budapest were not reached, the devastation would be terrible. There was too the possibility of Rumanian intervention, of new Serbian advances, all to be directed at Hungary.

Were such a situation to arrive, it was wholly conceivable that Hungarian influence at Vienna would compel a separate peace for the whole Empire. In such an

effort the Bohemian Slavs would unquestionably support the Magyars, and together their influence would be decisive, unless German military force suppressed Austrian desires. But if this happened, Hungary might, with the aid of her invaders, make a separate peace, and obtain with the aid of another Czar that independence which she had lost because of Russian intervention in the nineteenth century.

Again, it was probable that to prevent such a catastrophe, German high command would consent to the withdrawal of all Austrian troops in Russian Poland and about Cracow, now serving German, not Austrian purposes, and send them, with German reinforcements, to check the Russians along the Theiss. But this would mean the abandonment of the territory conquered in Poland, the retreat from the Bzura, the Rawa, and the Nida, to the Wartha. It would mean a tremendous drain on German military resources which would compel an acceptance of the defensive rôle permanently on the eastern front, at a time when the western campaign had already dropped to a defensive.

Austro-German victory, on the other



hand, would mean the temporary interruption of the Russian offensive, a new deadlock from the Rumanian frontier to the Baltic. But such a deadlock would inevitably lead to fresh Russian efforts, new Russian offensives, when the port of Archangel should be free of ice in the spring and the stream of supplies could flow in to Russia from her western Allies. At best, for the Austro-German alliance, victory in the Carpathians might mean a respite, a chance to draw breath and reorganize shaken Austrian armies, but now that Przemyśl had fallen there was left little hope of a reconquest of Galicia.

Such were the stakes of the great Battle of the Carpathians, still in progress in the third week of April. To these, too, there was always to be added the peril of Italy, still neutral, but ever more feverishly organizing its military forces. Unmistakable, also, in April was the growing demand of the Italian people to share in the conflict. To all Italian things the world had grown a little cold. Italian participation so long delayed had ceased to excite the hopes of the Allies, if it still created anxiety in Vienna and Berlin. But it was a contingency, to be reckoned with, to be discounted once more by Austro-German statesmen, if the hosts of the Czar should crown the Carpathians and enter the Hungarian Plain.

## V. ALLIED DEFEAT AT THE DARDANELLES

The disaster to the Allied fleet at the Dardanelles, which occurred too late to permit anything but the bald mention of the fact in my last review, proved to be of a decisive nature so far as the plan for forcing the Straits by the fleets alone was concerned. The effort of British and French official statements and naval critics to minimize the extent of the check was discredited by the progress of the operations in the weeks that followed.

Three battleships sunk, at least two by gunfire, two more put out of the battle-line for some weeks or months, represented the price of an attempt to repeat the exploit of Farragut in Mobile Bay.

Could the fleets, by mere weight of their superior gunfire and by the greater range of their artillery, have reduced the forts at the narrowest point of the Straits and reached the Sea of Marmora, the result would have been worth the cost of the lost ships. But no profit had resulted from the loss. On

the contrary it had been clearly established that ships alone could not force the Straits.

For Americans, the parallel of Santiago instantly comes to mind. Even after the Spanish fleet had left the harbor and there was to be faced only the weak batteries on Socapa Point, the naval authorities left it to the army to reduce the city, contenting themselves with bombarding by indirect and, as it turned out, ineffective fire. If the entrance to Santiago was narrower than that to the Sea of Marmora, it was far shorter and infinitely less well covered by artillery.

For the Allies, the defeat at the Straits was a demonstration that the work of the ships must be supplemented by that of an army, as at Santiago. Thus, while nothing but occasional long-range bombardments disturbed the victorious Turks and their German associates in the forts, an Anglo-French army, commanded by General D'Amade, the French general who had conquered the Shawia Province of Morocco for France in 1911, was reported to have sailed from Tunis, to have landed in Egypt; finally Athens despatches announced that an advance guard had passed the Egean ports of Greece and Bulgaria and entered the Gulf of Saros.

The purpose of such a land force was plain. Put ashore at Bulair, where the Gallipoli peninsula narrows to a five-mile neck, it could be covered by the guns of the fleet, while it cut the communications between the forts to the west of Bulair on the Gallipoli Peninsula and the European mainland. Again, supported by the guns of the fleet, it could move against the forts from the west and invest them. Under the fire of the artillery of this landing party, it would be impossible for the Turks to repair the damages to their forts, as they had when the fleet had bombarded them.

Such an expedition would have to deal with a Turkish army, presumably far larger, but on the Lines of Bulair it would have only a five-mile front to cover against the Turkish army, which could not risk being caught on the Gallipoli Peninsula, a bottle of which Bulair is the neck. But up to the time these lines are written, on April 20, no serious attempt to land had been recorded, although there were growing evidences of the concentration of Allied troops in the vicinity.

Meantime it is necessary to record that the Allied defeat had had a marked effect in lowering the prestige of the enemies of the Turk in the Near East. Bulgaria and

Greece were still neutral and the political parties and forces favoring neutrality, and friendly to Germany, were able to turn to immediate and considerable advantage the Allied check. In point of fact Bulgarian raiding parties appeared anew in Serbian Macedonia. In Greece, Venizelos, the champion of Hellenic intervention, announced his retirement from public life.

In the same fashion Turkish prestige gained immensely; the German party in Constantinople acquired new influence. The Sultan himself condescended to receive the correspondents of the neutral press and narrated to them his confidence in the impregnability of the forts defending the water gate to his capital. Even in Rome the effect was marked and Italian appetite once more waited upon a clear opportunity for easy rewards.

In the hope of snatching an easy victory, the Allies had risked a real disaster, which would inevitably lower their prestige in the whole neutral audience. The disaster had come and the consequences had been precisely what was to be expected. It remained now to be seen whether they could do by slow and deliberate methods, what they had failed to accomplish by a brilliant but costly and unsuccessful *coup de main*.

## VI. ST. MIHIEL

In February the French had broken out with a great offensive in the Champagne district between Rheims and the Argonne, on ground forever famous as the scene of the defeat of Attila. Over 500,000 men had battled for weeks on a narrow front, and the French attack, after having carried the immediate objective, German trenches along a low crest to the north of Souain, had been halted. But to check the French the Germans had denuded their entire front, in France, of reserves. Taking advantage of this, in early March the British had struck out north of La Bassée and won the Battle of Neuve Chapelle.

In this conflict upwards of 30,000 men had been lost in the two armies, the British loss alone reaching 13,000. The gain in territory amounted to perhaps a mile on a four-mile front. Hailed as a considerable triumph in March, the British success had been minimized by the Germans at once. In April, official reports conceding the British loss to have been twice that suffered by the British contingent in Wellington's army at Waterloo, and admitting that the English reserves had been badly handled, and artillery had at

one point played upon advancing British infantry, weakened the effect of what was still a considerable success.

Early in April the French broke out with still another offensive. This time they struck at the German position between the Meuse and the Moselle, the famous St. Mihiel "wedge." Southeast of Metz and opening westward from the Moselle River is the valley of the Rupt de Mad, a small river rising in the Heights of the Meuse east of Commercy. The valley opens a gap in the Heights of the Meuse almost to the valley of the Meuse. Between Toul and Verdun it is the one gap in the natural defenses, which the French had fortified to make the Eastern Barrier from Luxemburg to Switzerland.

In September, while the fighting between the Aisne and the Marne was still in progress, a German army from Metz had swept up the valley of the Rupt de Mad, occupied Thiaucourt, at the end of a little branch railroad following the valley west from the Moselle. Bringing up their heavy artillery they had reduced the great Fort des Camps Romains, which covered this valley, taken the fort, occupied St. Mihiel below it, crossed the Meuse and advanced toward the valley of the Aire, cutting the railroad connecting Verdun with Toul.

This success put the Germans south of Verdun. Their purpose was to push west and join hands with the army of the Crown Prince west and north of Verdun and complete the investment of this great fortress. Could they take this they would open a short line into northern France direct from German territory. But the retreat of the army of the Crown Prince and the subsequent repulse of the Metz army at the Aire checked this plan. The Metz army was compelled to retreat to St. Mihiel, where it fortified its position, still holding a bridge head on the west bank of the Meuse opposite St. Mihiel. At the same time they fortified the sides of the wedge north and south and thus held a corridor leading through the French barrier forts, but not immediately available for offensive operations.

After many more or less desultory attempts the French in April undertook to break this wedge. Their plan was to attack the Germans from the north and south, forcing the two sides of the corridor together and compelling the garrison at St. Mihiel to retreat in order not to be surrounded. To do this large masses of infantry, supported by artillery, were concentrated north of Toul on a



front from Pont-à-Mousson on the Moselle to Apremont near the Meuse, while other masses were pushed south from Verdun to drive the Germans down the eastern slopes of the Heights of the Meuse at Les Eparges and Coimbre upon the Plain of the Woëvre. Between the two French forces north of Flirey and south of Verdun, the German wedge was perhaps fifteen miles wide.

Once more, as in the Champagne, the fighting was desperate, and the German and French reports conflicting. The French claimed to have driven the Germans down the slopes of the Heights of the Meuse, to have taken the Heights of Les Eparges and Coimbre; the Germans long maintained that all French attacks had been repulsed. In the same fashion the French recorded, the Germans denied, gains to the south from Flirey and Pont-à-Mousson. Yet it seemed fair to believe that the French reports were accurate, since they narrated in great detail the ground taken. But up to the third week in April no decisive success could be claimed, the German wedge still held from the Moselle to the Meuse, although rumors, wholly unreliable, suggested the possibility of a German retreat.

For the French success about St. Mihiel would mean the final restoration of their eastern barrier forts, it would terminate any possibility of a future German offensive by this route. The moral effect would be unmistakable, but since the forts of Metz and Thionville barred their way forward, there could be nothing but a local success, the elimination of a menace to their defensive line. For the Germans, defeat would mean considerable sacrifice of prestige, but little beyond the loss of an offensive position. But up to the time these lines are written, on April 20, German defense was still holding, whatever incidental losses of position had been suffered.

## VII. JOFFRE'S "NIBBLING"

Early in the year General Joffre had explained his strategy in the enigmatic phrase that he was "still nibbling." As the season advanced the meaning of the phrase became more and more obvious. Interpreted by such eminent students of war as Hilaire Belloc, this policy of "nibbling" was identical with the far grimmer method of Grant, the method of attrition, by which the Confederacy was finally subjugated and Lee's invincible army worn to dust.

Briefly the method of Joffre, as thus in-

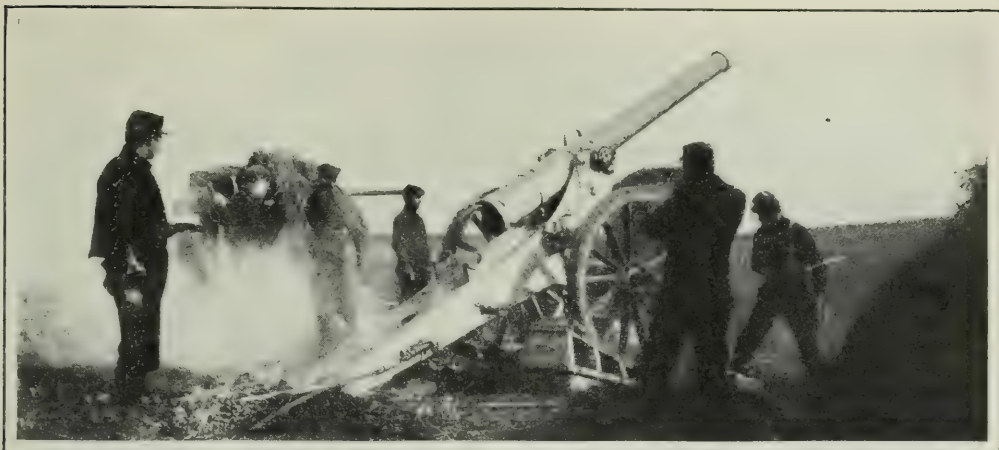
terpreted, was as follows: On the western front the Allies had established a considerable superiority in numbers, which was bound to grow as British corps arrived. On the whole front the Allies were able to maintain reserves and still have troops to be used at a point selected for attack. The Germans, on the contrary, were compelled to draw troops from their whole front to meet any thrust at a fixed point. This was proved in the Battle of the Champagne, when troops, assigned to cover the position in Flanders, appeared at Beauséjour.

Allied strategy then conceived the plan of making a series of attacks at widely separated points. At such points the attackers would concentrate a huge amount of artillery and large forces of infantry. Neuve Chapelle was a type of this operation. Under cover of superior artillery fire an attack would be made upon the German lines; a series of trenches would be taken. The attackers would then fortify themselves and repulse the assault of the Germans, compelled to make counter attacks. These counter attacks would cost the Germans far greater casualties than the Allies and thus contribute to wearing down the German defense, already inferior in numbers.

In addition, if the Germans should, by hurrying reserves from all parts of their lines weaken any point, a new attack would be made upon this point. Thus Neuve Chapelle was attacked as soon as the French in Champagne signalled the appearance on their front of reserves, which were known to have been previously stationed about La Bassée. If at no point the German line were actually pierced, yet the wearing-down process would be continuous.

An immediate effect of this policy of "nibbling" would be to prevent the Germans from sending troops from the West to support the hard-pressed Austrians in the Carpathians. But the ultimate effect, so Belloc reasoned, and so it was becoming plain the Allied commanders reasoned, would be to wear down German strength to the point where the line would be too thin to hold. Americans, to whose minds the fiftieth anniversary of the close of the campaign about Richmond recalled the strategy of Grant, saw instantly the parallel.

In the lines before Petersburg, Grant steadily pushed his trenches to the west as his troops increased in numbers. Lee, perforce, followed suit, but to him was lacking all reinforcements. Ultimately his line was stretched too far and Grant pierced it and



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

## FRENCH HEAVY ARTILLERY IN POSITION NEAR SOISSONS

started the race to Appomattox. Like Grant, the Allies could count on steadily increasing numbers. For all British and French commentators, official and otherwise, the time had come when German resources in men had reached the maximum. Such tactics then, however temporarily delayed, seemed bound in the end to succeed just as they had succeeded with Grant.

On the other hand the German point of view was that the losses of the Allies in each offensive were tremendously in excess of their own. Champagne, Neuve Chapelle, St. Mihiel, all represented in German re-

ports tremendous and sterile sacrifices of men. To this the Allies retorted with increasing insistence that the German losses in each case had been greater. A fair decision between the two claims could not yet be made. Still it was fair to say that nowhere had the Allies made any real gain in ground. Yet everywhere, in Flanders, in Alsace, where a new offensive was breaking out, in Champagne, between the Meuse and the Moselle about St. Mihiel, it was plain that the Allies were "nibbling," and that at all these points the Germans were on the defensive and, as their own bulletins revealed,



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

## GERMANS CUTTING DOWN TREES IN FRENCH FORESTS



fighting desperately, if successfully, to hold their own.

Such, in brief, was Allied strategy, interpreted by the ablest of Allied critics and revealed in the March and April operations of both the French and British armies.

## VIII. THE COMING OF MAY 1

To Kitchener, rightly or wrongly, had been ascribed the phrase, "I do not know when the war will end, but I do know that it will not begin until May 1." As this day approached, there was unmistakable expectation all over the world that it would be signalized by some operations that would disclose the purpose of the Allies.

But the fighting of April, the steady "nibbling" of Joffre and French, suggested that May, like the preceding months, might pass without seeing any considerable or decisive conflicts. To wear down the Germans, rather than to attempt any spectacular, costly, and conceivably fruitless general offensive, appeared more and more to be the plan of Allied high command.

On the other hand, laying aside the partial conjectures of Allied observers, there remained the possibility, plainly voiced by German champions, that with the coming of spring weather, it might be the Germans who would take the offensive in the West and make one more tremendous effort to deal with their great enemies. But up to March 20 the sole suggestion of this was a slight operation about the Yser, where a position west of the Yser was taken and retaken several times and finally wrested from Belgian hands.

German observers insisted that there still remained to the Kaiser large reserves of troops, who had been training all through the winter months. With these reserves, they insisted that new German attacks could be pressed, but even if they were not to be undertaken, German defense would hold. To support this view they pointed to the success of German defense in France and Belgium, which had yielded rods and feet, but nowhere miles, and had exacted for the lost territory a terrific total in human life.

The whole dispute now turned on a single point. If, as the Allied "eye-witnesses" insisted, German reserves had been exhausted, May might see German recoil from the North Sea to Switzerland, but if German "eye-witnesses" were correct, the prospect of Allied advance was slight. All was then a matter of conjecture, but because of the

forecasts of both sides, May promised to be the most interesting month of the war since September. It was conceivable that the fighting in this month might answer the great question as to whether peace were possible soon or the war bound to drag on through summer and perhaps another winter.

The appearance of Zeppelins above English cities, near Canterbury and within a few miles of London in the third week in April, was a plain suggestion that Germany was preparing to make one final desperate attempt to carry out her threats of many months and bring devastation and destruction to the British Isles, to London. But the earlier raids, plainly little more than experiments, resulted in small loss of life to the British and no considerable success to the invaders. It was as a promise and a threat that they commanded attention and interest.

In the same way it is necessary to record the measurable failure of the submarine blockade. Nearly every day brought the report of a British merchant vessel sunk, with an ever-increasing toll of life. The sinking of the *Falaba*, with a large loss of lives, including women and children, including also one American citizen, aroused a protest from the whole world, which saw in it a lapse to indefensible brutality. Holland too suffered the loss of a ship under circumstances which stirred Dutch anger deeply. But the loss was insignificant compared with the total number of ships which every week reached British ports. After two months the submarine blockade was still an absolute failure, more costly to Germany than England, since it had aroused the resentment of the whole neutral world. Once more the policy of "terribleness" had recoiled upon its authors.

As I close this review, on April 20, a new British attack, this time about Ypres, is reported. At the moment, while the extent and result of this operation remain in doubt, it is chiefly interesting as one more example of the "nibbling" policy. Coinciding with fresh French efforts in Alsace, it seems to indicate that Allied strategy in the West is more and more coming to a wearing-down policy, to a steady increase of pressure all along the line, rather than to any spectacular "leap forward." Such a policy, if based upon sound observation, must inevitably end in a break in German lines. But German assertions of undiminished strength must also be noted, together with their evident decision, "to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer."



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

YOUNG MEN OF THE GERMAN NATIONAL "FLUGWEHR" (FLYING CORPS) MARCHING PAST THEIR OFFICERS

# AS WITNESSED IN GERMANY

GERMAN SYSTEM AS SEEN IN CAMP, HOSPITAL, AND PRISON

BY ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE

(Former United States Senator from Indiana)

[Senator Beveridge has had exceptional opportunities in several of the countries now at war. The present article is one of two that we are publishing from his pen. The second one, "As Witnessed in France," will appear in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for next month.—THE EDITOR.]

## I.—TRAINING NEW GERMAN ARMIES

ALL over Germany fresh troops are in training. This has been going on for many months. Every possible detail of every possible experience at the front is gone over and over and over, time and time and time again. You may see every phase of a real battle, except, of course, the actual wounding and killing, in the country adjoining any one of the innumerable training camps, scattered throughout the Empire: artillery action, trench fighting, advances in the open, cavalry work, scouting, management of supplies, both food and ammunition,—in short, every conceivable thing that can occur in active service. Excepting only casualties, one could take photographs on these practise fields and in these training camps, or one could write descriptions, and both photograph and description would faithfully portray scenes at and near the battle line, so

exactly are conditions at the front reproduced.

The thoroughness of this training of the common soldier cannot be put too strongly or too often. When finally the recruit is allowed to go to the scene of action, he already is a seasoned soldier, except for the experience of hearing and feeling hostile lead and steel. For most of these men have had much physical and disciplinary education. Therefore in these camps at present, the theory of warfare is reduced to practise, the theory itself being carefully modified by actual experience in the present war. It is reasonably safe to say that the German soldier of 1915 will be a more efficient man than was his comrade who rallied to the colors last August. As to military training, it should be noticed that scholars like the great theologian Harnack, or the Socialist



leader Suedekum, think it is so good a thing for developing health, strength, and efficiency, that the German people are more than repaid for this investment. "Aside from the military phase, — if no army were needed and no war possible, — I should earnestly favor our system of military training, physically, mentally, and morally, as a vital part of our educational system," said Professor Harnack. If such a thing were possible, the instruction and drill of those preparing to be officers is far more careful and complete than

the exacting and exhaustive military schooling given the common soldier. And these future officers are spared no hardship. They



GERMAN RESERVES OFF FOR FRONT

are toughened and seasoned quite as much as the men whom they soon are to command. You study with keen interest company after company of these young men who are striving for commissions. You are struck by the high intelligence of their faces; character and education is written on every feature. Their bearing is manful and soldierly. Germany's worst enemy could not fail to be impressed by the appearance of these men, even though he looked at them through the glasses of hatred.

Of the hundreds studied in one immense training camp in January, 1915, none looked younger than twenty or older than thirty. From their



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

A BERLIN JUVENILE LANDSTURM BUILDING TENTS

appearance and conduct they seemed to be prime soldier stock.

The training differs from that of peace times only in its continuity. It is intensive training upon soil well prepared. These things are stated only because they are facts, precisely as one might describe any fact, such as a tree, bridge, railway train, house, field, hill.

No one but the military authorities knows the number of men now in training. Certainly it is very great. And waiting eagerly for their turn, are hundreds upon hundreds of thousands. To the casual and unskilled observer, ignorant of military things, there seems to be no end of men in Germany.

These may or may not be fit war material, —you do not know, personally. But as to numbers, they at least seem to be myriads. By careful questioning in every quarter, and in different parts of Germany, during several weeks, and piecing together, weighing and testing information thus garnered, the conclusion seems justified that Germany expects to keep 5,000,000 men actively in the field, year in and year out, no matter how long the war lasts, and more than 5,000,000 cannot be used to advantage. By 5,000,000 is meant soldiers and officers as well trained as those called to the colors last August. All this, too, in the regular, ordinary course of events, without straining her human resources.

## II.—CARE OF GERMANY'S WOUNDED

**B**UT what of the wounded and disabled? Of these, by semi-official estimate up to January 15, there were 543,000, of whom 322,000 were only slightly wounded, and at that time nearly ready to go to the front again; and 221,000 more seriously wounded, of whom 35 per cent. would soon be ready for duty once more. A more generous computation gave 650,000 wounded, of whom 60 per cent., or 390,000 men, could return to the front within a short time.

The care of these injured ones is infinitesimal in scientific detail and very tender on its human side. The best hospital trains are marvels of comfort, convenience, efficiency. In each regulation hospital train there are twenty cars; in each car, there are beds for ten patients. Each bed is suspended on powerful springs fixed at the ends so as to absorb the shock. Above each bed are two looped straps in which the wounded one may rest his weary arms and hands. In a case at the side is glass, water, and tooth-brush; in short, no mechanical convenience has been neglected. Then, of course, there are operating cars, surgeons' cars. Above all, on these hospital trains there are women nurses, carefully chosen not only for their knowledge, nerve, and skill, but also for their gift of human sympathy.

These maimed men are promptly cared for before reaching hospital trains, in the field hospital, very near the scene of the casualty, and next in a division base hospital within sound of the firing line. Go into one of these latter establishments of succor. Here a soldier is recovering, and is very happy, almost joyful. His only thought, he tells you, is to get back to the fighting. There

another is too badly hurt to talk or even think.

Yonder, a man lies dying, and he expires in your presence; but it does not astonish, for you have seen the same thing in the Philippines, down to the smallest detail of sunken cheek, stertorous breathing, rattling throat, and final silence. Also you have seen the same thing, but more sordidly, and without the least tinge of romance or glory, in New York hospitals.

But what is this? The general commanding that corps comes in. He does not stride. He walks softly. He goes to the bedside of a common soldier, sore wounded, on whose breast he pins, by a black and white ribbon, the Iron Cross with words of praise for gallantry. Three times this happens; once the prostrate figure answers with articulate words of thanks. The other two are too sick to speak; but appreciation shines from their eyes.

Finally comes the transfer of the wounded to the great permanent hospitals located at central points in every large German city. Witness the unloading of the maimed from the newly arrived hospital train.

It is early morning. A chill rain is falling. Two- or three-score men with red cross bands on their coat sleeves carry the disabled soldiers on stretchers to waiting vehicles which haul them to hospital buildings, —there are red cross ambulances, luxurious limousines, great furniture vans, with reclining places for the wounded, much like the beds on the trains. A few women, who have relatives in those cars, stand patiently about.

A well-dressed, gray-haired man is looking



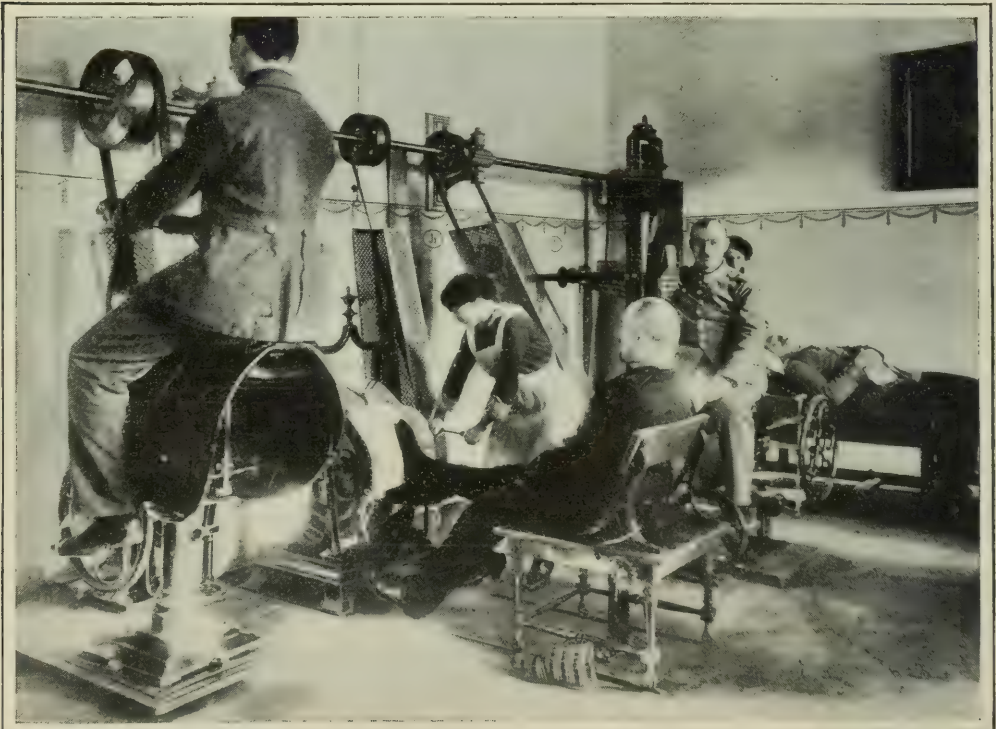
for his son, whom he soon finds, desperately hurt, and walks by the stretcher's side to the limousine. There are no tears. Each person, man or woman, holds back all emotion with firm hand. Having settled down to the business of war, they are doing it in steady fashion, facing the ugly as well as the stirring with equal patience and fortitude.

Of dozens of convalescing, wounded soldiers talked to, all but one expressed their eagerness to get back to the front. There was no false enthusiasm about them; no pretense. You could not doubt their earnestness and sincerity. The expression of the face, tone of voice, above all the look from the eye, left no room for doubt. One soldier who had been shot in the leg at the Battle of Tannenberg, said he was quite comfortable where he was. He would not be able to walk very well anyhow, he thought, and did not seem to regret it. But he was the one exception. Of the total number of wounded in every way, at least 60 per cent. go to the front again. Cautious and conservative estimates place the percentage even higher,—more indeed than 70 per cent. The anxiety of the men to return to the firing line equals their desire to get well. Indeed this state of mind has something to do with the quick-

ness of their recovery. Great numbers of German soldiers have been wounded, treated, and have gone back to service three separate times.

Professor Dr. O. Kiliani, of New York, one of the principal surgeons with the German forces operating near Lille, France, has personally observed many cases of this kind. The uncomplaining fortitude of the wounded, their astonishing vitality and power of resistance, their ardor and determination to get into the fighting as soon as possible, Professor Kiliani thinks the most notable physical and psychological facts coming under the observation of the scientist.

Dr. Charles Haddon Sanders, of Washington, D. C., head of the American Red Cross hospital at Gleiwitz, Germany, on the Russian frontier, testifies to the same thing. "Every man of them," said Dr. Sanders, "is anxious to get back to the front and the fighting. Not one of them wants to go home. Their spirit and confidence is beyond belief. I want to say this for these wounded German soldiers whom we have operated upon and treated: no patients could be more appreciative of what is done for them. I have been impressed by their cleanliness of mind and manner."



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THE SCIENTIFIC TREATING OF WOUNDED GERMAN SOLDIERS, PRACTISED BY THE GERMAN SANITARY SQUAD

### III.—GERMANY'S PRISONERS

GERMANY has within her borders at the present moment not far from 700,000 prisoners of war. At the end of December, the exact number was 586,000, of whom 310,000 were Russians, 220,000 French, 40,000 Belgian, and 16,000 British. These specific figures are those of the railway department, which is the only mathematically accurate authority. Among the British are included Sikhs, Gurkhas, and others from India; among the French, Arabs, Moors, and others from Africa.

On January 15 a semi-official but fairly reliable estimate placed the total number of prisoners at 633,000. While this latter figure is not from the railway records it is believed to be reasonably dependable. At the date of this writing, February 10, 1915, it is known that many thousands of additional prisoners have been taken. Thus an approximation of 700,000 would seem to be not unfair. These numbers include no civilians, but only soldiers who had been actually engaged in hostilities.

This same semi-official but sufficiently authoritative estimate placed the total number of German missing and prisoners at 154,000. It is possible, of course, that all of these may be prisoners.

Thus Germany has on her hands, in unwounded, able-bodied, captured enemies, about one per cent. of her total population of men, women, and children. To feed these prisoners means the providing of enough food to supply the whole German nation for about three days out of a year. Yet it is firmly expected in Germany that the number of prisoners taken by the German forces will be very greatly increased during the present year, and Germany is preparing, now, for that contingency.

#### CONVERSATIONS WITH PRISONERS

These soldiers of the Allies held in Germany are concentrated in prison camps scattered all over the Empire. Let us, then, go carefully through two of these camps, which are typical of all. Yet all these places are

not alike; for, although the same general orders govern all, and the same quantity and quality of food is supplied everywhere, the character, ability, and inclination of the camp commander has much to do with the camp management.

"We have no complaint to make, sir, considering that we are prisoners of war," was the answer of a French common soldier when



SENATOR BEVERIDGE WITH A FRENCH AND A RUSSIAN PRISONER OF WAR

questioned about their treatment; "and," added he, of his own accord, "they treat us like white men, sir." This particular prisoner spoke English perfectly, having worked in London for three or four years.

As I was permitted to talk freely with the prisoners, more than a score were questioned and conversed with, Russians and French, as well as English. This was done through an interpreter, whom I have known personally for many years, brought with me for such work from my own home town in America where he was born, and who has no German associations or connections whatever. No German interpreted anything here reported; nor did anyone object or interfere in the slightest with my conversing with the prisoners.

In this camp are more than 12,000 men, the great majority of them being French, the next largest number being Russians. There are perhaps 300 or 400 Sikhs, Gurkhas, and Turcos, and only thirty Englishmen.

Very lonely, these last appear among so many thousands of their fellow-prisoners,



whose language they do not speak or understand, and with whom, it would seem, they associate but little. Perhaps this is the reason for the sour frame of mind in which this tiny group of men was found, which was in striking contrast with the comparative contentment of the French, Russians, Sikhs, and Gurkhas.

"Do you get enough to eat?"

"Only a bare existence, sir."

"But can you not buy what you want at the camp canteen? Do you not get money from home?"

"No, sir, I wrote to my brother in the States for money the end of last November, and I have had no answer yet——" It was then the nineteenth of January!

Such are fair samples of the comments of several of these thirty English prisoners.

On the contrary:

"How are you getting along?" was asked of a Russian.

"All right," he answered. "We have nothing to complain of."

"Do you get enough to eat?"

"Yes, plenty," came the contented reply.

"I'll wager," broke in the German camp commander, "that he is getting more to eat than he ever had before in his life!"

This exact exchange of question and answer was in substance the same as that which occurred with all Russian prisoners talked to. Without exception, each of them grinned with bovine good humor.

"Considering that you are a prisoner, I take it that you are satisfied, from what you have said," was the concluding remark to a hearty, pleasant-faced Frenchman, after many questions and answers about food, treatment, and occupation.

"Yes, considering, as you say, that we are prisoners."

"But of course you don't like prison life," was the visitor's banal and silly remark.

"Of course not," he smiled. He was too polite to laugh outright. "But we get along very well. Considering that we are prisoners, much better than we had expected."

And here is another scrap of conversation, with another French prisoner in this camp:

"How do you get along with the German officers and guards?"

"Why, very well indeed," he answered.

"Do you mean that the relations between you Frenchmen and the Germans are good?" was the surprised query.

"Why, yes," he answered, "that is, our personal relations. But," he added quickly, "of course that has nothing to do with our

patriotic feeling. That is stronger than ever, if possible."

Just what this personal good feeling meant in a concrete way, was seen and heard in a dramatic manner an hour later.

Since the subject of food was mentioned in every conversation, the question was asked of the German commander:

"What do you give them to eat?"

"In the morning, bread and coffee; at mid-day, bread and a thick soup made of potatoes with some other vegetable in which, five times a week, meat is included; at evening, bread and a thinner soup. The water, of course, is filtered." It was this lack of meat of which the English chiefly complained.

#### CONDITIONS OF THE BARRACKS

The prisoners' barracks are large, well-built, wooden affairs, much better than those occupied by the interned Belgian soldiers in Holland. Sometimes there are three or four tiers of bunks, one above another, supported by heavy, upright timbers. These are not close or crowded. The mattress is made of a rough substance, like gunnysack, filled with straw. There are plenty of blankets; several stoves were observed. It was a cold, snowy day, but the interior of every barrack visited was comfortably warm.

The prisoners appeared to be well-nourished and healthy. In two camps and among many hundreds of prisoners personally inspected, only one was found who looked in poor health and said he felt badly,—a small-statured Russian. The commanders of both camps said that little or no sickness had as yet developed.

#### GARDENING AND HANDICRAFTS

In one camp, a good deal of landscape gardening had been done around certain barracks, very tasteful, even artistic.

"You seem to be beautifying your grounds," was the casual remark to the German commander.

"Oh, that is the work of the French. They have a gift for it. It is beautiful, isn't it?" answered the camp commander, who seemed to be prouder of this work of the French prisoners than of anything else, except one; although plainly he was proud of his whole establishment. "The French," he remarked, "are very industrious. They are easy to get along with, too. There are some very talented men among the French. Look in here."

In a long wooden building were many men making various things from wood, with all manner of carpenter's tools,—one sawing,



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

#### POST OFFICE IN THE GERMAN CONCENTRATION CAMP AT DOBERITZ

(This camp contains both English and Russian prisoners of war. The German officer, seated, is the interpreter, whose business it is to censor all mail to and from the prisoners)

another planing, and so on. All this product is sold, the purchase price going to the prisoner who made the article. There were several buildings of this kind, where all sorts of handicraft are practised, tailoring, shoe-making, the plaiting of various useful things from straw.

One end of the big room where the carpenters and cabinet-makers were at work had been boarded off to itself, making a small separate room. This was the personal workshop of a young French sculptor, who at that moment was busy modeling a large and rather ambitious piece. His prison studio was adorned with a dozen or more of his creations, some of them very good.

This young man talked with great freedom and gave a more sensible view of their situation than did his mates.

"Most of the German officers are very nice and considerate," said he. "Of course, there are some who like to show their importance, and these are disagreeable."

"How is your food?"

"Of course it isn't famous, but it's all right. One must not expect too much. It is all for our country,—all of this, as well as the fighting."

"But you say you are comfortable here,—do you want to get back to fight?"

"Very much! Very much indeed!" he answered.

#### HINDU PRISONERS

In the barracks occupied by the prisoners from India, there is an unusual feature: every Hindu cooks and in every way prepares his own food, for he will not eat anything touched by Christian hands. Many of them were observed at this private and religious occupation. The Gurkha sergeant in charge of this barrack spoke English very well. He and his companions were treated very well, he said,—much better than they expected.

Would he like to get back to India? He would,—more than anything.

Why had he come to the war?

"Orders, sir."

He good-naturedly interpreted for a group of tall, grave-faced Sikhs, statues of dignity and gravity.

Why had they come so far to fight?

"The service," was the answer; and the Gurkha sergeant tried to make their meaning clear by such expressions as "their duty,"



"their profession," "their business." As to wanting to go home, one gathered that they were quite indifferent, that it was all the same to them, and that they took things as they happened.

#### "TURCOS" FROM FRENCH AFRICA

In the barracks where the Turcos lived, came the one disagreeable, even shocking, surprise of the day. It is impossible to imagine more villainous-looking creatures. Nearly all of them are small men, and most of them have viciousness stamped on every feature. Their evil eyes follow you expressionless, unblinking, like those of a serpent. Some of these men undoubtedly are criminals,—the forehead, jaw, mouth, back head, and above all the merciless, soulless eyes spell depravity. The Sikhs and Gurkhas from India, some of whom have fine and even noble features, are infinitely superior to this scum of Northern Africa; for such at least most of these particular Turcos must be. There are some faces among them that are not bad; but, most of them justify the harshest description. It is not thinkable that these are fair samples of the native inhabitants of the French-African possessions.

They were clad in an amazing array of garments,—here one, an Arab, a blue mark on his forehead, wearing the bournous of the desert; there another, of a different ethnology, clad in a totally unfamiliar uniform of dark blue, with brass buttons; still another with the braided jacket and baggy trousers of the zouave,—and so on throughout as outré a collection of costumes as the imagination of a Lewis Carroll could picture.

#### A CHORUS OF FRENCH SOLDIERS

Stepping out and coming face to face with a group of cleanly looking, pleasant-faced Frenchmen, their features glowing with intelligence, their kindly eyes full of friendliness, one seems to confront the best as opposed to the worst in human nature, so sudden and startling is the contrast. And the trim, erect, hearty German officers, with their bluff, open countenances, do not soften the dissimilarity.

From some distance away there floats the music of human voices in song. There are many voices, very many voices. They are singing in harmony. You listen astounded. Can you be dreaming, you ask yourself,—can this be a trick of the brain?

"Oh!" exclaims the German commander, noting your amazement. "That is the French chorus. It is exceedingly good, too.

Come along and see them! I am sure they would be glad to have you."

You go to a long building, much like the barracks, but bare of any furniture within. The gray, snowy day has begun to decline, and the big room is in the gloaming. At least 200 French soldiers are arranged in a semi-circle, like a horseshoe magnet. At one point are grouped the basses; at another the tenors; at another the baritones,—each man holds in his hand a sheaf of paper, on which are written notes. All are singing.

In the center of this human tuning fork, stands a tall, slender French soldier, cap on head, his long blue military overcoat draping his figure almost to the floor. He is conducting the chorus, his baton rising, falling, curving, his figure swaying in time with the harmony.

So intent are the members of this prisoner-chorus on their singing that they are not conscious that the camp commander and several officers have entered. Their soul is in their voices,—yes, and in their faces, too, which, in the dim light, seem to you, in your now uplifted state, very refined, very noble. In spirit, these uniformed, disarmed warriors are not at this moment in a prison camp at all, nor even in Germany. They are back in France, beloved, beautiful France. It is of their country they are singing now, of their homes, of their adored ones.

It is a song quarried from the very depths of their beings. They have written it themselves, there in the prison camp, in the heart of Germany; they have composed the music for it themselves, every note of it; words and music are alive, throbbing, passionate, tender, exalted. You are deeply touched, you feel as if in a holy presence. The German commander removes his cap, and stands silent and uncovered, motionless. You do the like, at the same time, unconsciously, as if moved by a common impulse.

The song of France and home and loved ones dies tremblingly away. For a moment there is silence, absolute, unbroken, profound. Then a tenor voice begins a solo. Rich, mellow, highly trained, the voice is full of fire, pathos, and infinite emotion. And the accompaniment! The first impression on your now elevated senses is that a great orchestra is hidden near at hand. But no; it is a miracle more extraordinary still. The superb tenor is accompanied by human orchestration. Those hundreds of French soldiers are humming, their mingled tones producing the effect of scores of pieces playing in harmony. Never before and never



Photograph by Henry Ruschin

FRENCH PRISONERS SINGING IN GERMAN DETENTION CAMP AT ZOSSEN

again in your life shall you hear the like of this vocal marvel.

It ceases. Silence again. Then: "Best congratulations!" It is the German commander speaking. From the background where we stood listening, he has walked forward and is warmly shaking the soloist's hand, as he praises his singing. "Best congratulations!" he exclaims again, in French, as he grasps the hand of the conductor. And: "Best congratulations!" once more as,

first right then left, he bows to the chorus.<sup>1</sup>

"Merci, monsieur!" answers the pleased tenor. And "Merci, monsieur!" the conductor; and "Merci!" murmur the men. But all of them with dignity. The whole scene was very, very fine. No patronage on the part of the German commander, no truckling by his French charges; but mutual respect and self-respect on both sides.

<sup>1</sup> The chorus conductor and the tenor were professors of music in Paris.



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RUSSIAN PRISONERS OF WAR FORM A SINGING SOCIETY AND GIVE CONCERTS



Another evidence, this, of a staggering fact which has no intelligence in it; the two peoples who are shedding one another's blood most freely in this war do not dislike one another personally. On the contrary, they seem to get on very well together. You had noted this in the comments of French women in the territory occupied by the Germans, back of their western front. And here it is again in the prison camps. And now you reflect on another incident which occurred in a town some thirty miles southeast of Lille, France.

In an elevated garden, the stone wall of which was some twelve or fifteen feet above the street, was a row of German soldiers; on the sidewalk beneath, a score of French children. Between the soldiers and the children a game was going forward. The soldiers were throwing bits of chocolate to the children, calling out to them endearing names, and the little ones were accepting and reciprocating both. So conspicuous was the mutual friendliness that, although the automobile was more than an hour late on a schedule to Grand Headquarters, you yet persisted in stopping for a little while to get kodak pictures of this *camaraderie* between the invaders and the children of the invaded.

#### ILL-FEELING BETWEEN GERMANS AND ENGLISH

Another prisoners' camp was exactly like the first you had seen in the food and occupations of the captured. But it had no landscape gardening, no sculptor, no chorus; perhaps because there were comparatively few French, or because of the lack of initiative, invention, and sympathy of the German camp commander. Doubtless it was both. In this camp, the nationalities of the prisoners were almost reversed: a large number of English, very many Russians, comparatively few French, and no blacks. Here the English were more cheerful and less complaining than their thirty desolate brothers in the first camp visited; but here, also, the hostility between the English and Germans was even more pronounced.

"The English are very difficult," the genial commander of the first camp visited had remarked, and:

"We can't get along with the English. They won't work. They object to everything," was the comment of the somewhat rheumatic German commander of the second prison camp visited.

On their part, the dislike of the English

prisoners for the Germans was still more pointed and acid. While most of them frankly said that they thought themselves very well off as to food and quarters, in view of the fact that they were prisoners of war, still when one was asked:

"Would you rather be here or in the trenches?" the answer came with a snap:

"In the trenches, sir. I'd like to get a crack at them, sir!"

And another, this time a tailor, one of the fewer than a dozen Englishmen actually seen at voluntary work, answering the same question, said, sharply: "In the trenches with my comrades, sir. Anything is better than this."

In general, the hostility of the English prisoners to their German captors was plainly apparent, and, indeed, unconcealed. One could not help admiring the openness and boldness of it. Conversely, the dislike of the German officers and guards for their stubborn wards was no less manifest. You could not but like the frankness displayed by both. The only difference in their mutual dislike seemed to be that the Germans gave reasons, such as: "The English won't work." Or: "The English are quarrelsome." Or: "The English fight the French with their fists." Or: "The English are always complaining."

On the other hand, with the English antipathy for the Germans, it was a case of:

"I do not like you, Dr. Fell!

The reason why I cannot tell.

But this one thing I know full well:

I do not like you, Dr. Fell!"

Yet it seems that both Germans and English respect one another highly as first-class fighting men. For example: take this comment of a German officer at Lille, France, noted for his gallantry, which was agreed to by his fellow officers:

"The English whom we have met are good soldiers. The officers are fine."

Reciprocally: "Oh, yes, the Germans fight well enough; like devils, sir," was the comment of an English prisoner who had just expressed his dislike for the Germans and his earnest wish to "get at them" again.

"Do you get enough to eat?" you ask a bearded English sailor.

"I suppose so; but not as much as we should like, sir." He said he got money from home and could buy what he liked in the canteen. "But," said he; "we can't get jam, sir."

"Jam!" you exclaim, in ill-mannered surprise.

"Yes, sir. Jam, sir, and chocolate and such other like dainties, sir."

#### CARING FOR THE PRISONER'S MONEY

The camp post office is the liveliest place of all. Always these stations of intelligence seem to be crowded. Also, they are disbursement centers. In one camp 33,000 marks had been paid to French prisoners by the end of the year 1914. This money was sent from France by the friends or relatives of the captured prisoners. It is not given out in bulk or cash by the German officials. Ten marks a week is the maximum allowed to a private soldier, so that he will not spend it recklessly. At the canteen are sold only food and clothing; the sale of intoxicants is forbidden.



A GROUP OF RUSSIAN PRISONERS



Photograph by American Press Association

#### GERMAN SANITARY SQUAD DISINFECTING THE CLOTHES OF RUSSIAN PRISONERS AT THE GUBEN PRISON CAMP

#### THE PRISONERS' EXCELLENT HEALTH

Of many thousands of prisoners personally inspected, all but one appeared to be in robust health. You were surprised at their rosy cheeks, well-nourished condition and general physical fitness. As far as is possible, those who will not work voluntarily, making articles which are sold and paid for, are compelled to do labor of some kind. Hundreds are compelled to draw and push wagons laden with camp provisions. Other hundreds keep clean the streets of German cities and the approaching roads. Nurenburg is an example of this. But with every possible employment, only a fraction of Germany's 700,000 prisoners can be given useful occupations during the winter.

When spring and summer come, however, there will be another story. It is planned, at least in parts of Germany, in certain portions of Bavaria, for example, to employ the prisoners in tilling the soil, sowing the seed, and gathering the harvest. For this work, the French are willing and the Russians more than eager. No woman, child, or old man need work in the fields of Germany during the present year, unless they insist upon doing so, for there are enough prisoners anxious to perform that labor in preference to the confinement of the camps.







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THREE TYPES OF RUSSIAN SOLDIERS: BASCHKIREN, KIRGISEN, AND TARTARS.

# THE NEW RUSSIA

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON

## I. RUSSIA, 1905-1915

“WITH the war and without vodka, Russia is more prosperous than with vodka and without the war.” This, the greatest single sentence ever uttered for prohibition, comes, not from a professional Prohibitionist, but from M. Kharitonoff, Controller of the Treasury, speaking before the Budget Committee of the Russian Parliament on January 25. The Controller added that, owing to the extraordinary increase in the national savings due to prohibition, the enormous outlay occasioned by the war had caused no widespread hardship in Russia. As a proof of this, M. Kharitonoff cited the figures. The national savings, as shown in bank deposits between December, 1913 (seven months before the war) and December, 1914 (after five months' war), had been increased by 147 per cent. What a contrast, this, with the country's condition just ten years ago! For it is exactly ten years since the fall of Port Arthur, and the great battle of Mukden, which broke the power of Russia in Manchuria, was fought and lost in March, 1905.

In these ten years Russia has gained:

1. Civil and religious liberty.
  2. A Parliament, of two houses, rapidly becoming fitted to the national genius.
  3. A new principle of citizenship, affecting a hundred million Russian peasants.
  4. A new ideal in education.
  5. A new cultivated area of 50,000,000 acres.
  6. An increase in national revenue of \$500,000,000.
  7. A new epoch of agricultural and industrial prosperity.
  8. An added population of 40,000,000.
- It is doubtful whether, since the world began, any nation has ever made an equal ten-years' gain.

## II. THE RUSSIAN PARLIAMENT

The Russian Parliament was added to a strong sovereignty, not substituted for a sovereignty weak or already abolished. The result is, both elements of the national organism, the sovereignty and the Parliament, continue to operate together, producing an admirably stable union. The one gives con-

tinuity and poise. The other gives free respiration to the national life. So Russia has a government not exactly like that of any other nation; in some things, like that of England; in some, more like that of the United States; in both, well fitted to her own needs.

As in England, the governing power in Russia is made up of three elements: the sovereign; the upper house; the lower house. The upper house consists of just under 200 members, and is somewhat like the upper house designed, but not yet formed, by the English Liberals; one-half appointed by the crown (for the king's creation of peers is, in fact, appointment to the upper house); one-half representing different powers and classes in the state. To show how thorough, thoughtful, and fair the Russian system is, it is worth while describing exactly in what way the elected half of Russia's upper house is made up. It is as follows:

- Six are elected by the Clergy;
- Eighteen by the hereditary Nobility;
- Six by the Academy of Sciences and the Universities;
- Six by the Chambers of Commerce;
- Six by the Industrial Councils;
- Thirty-four by the gubernias with local self-government (states);
- Sixteen by the gubernias without local self-government (territories);
- Six by Poland,

or 98 in all, as against 98 appointed by the crown—a total of 196. The lower house (Duma) elected in a way presently to be considered, numbers just under 450; about the size of the House of Commons, or our own House of Representatives.

#### THE MAKING OF THE DUMA: THE LOWER HOUSE

We think of the Duma as the Russian Parliament. It is, in reality, the lower house of a bicameral Parliament; the upper house, which was developed from the Council of the Empire, being, as we have seen, in part elective. The Duma owes its existence to the Czar's famous proclamation, of October 17, 1905.

The First Duma met on April 27, 1906. It was largely made up of wild-eyed theorists and revolutionaries, who "made laws for an imaginary world," but had no grasp at all on the world as it now is. It was dissolved, as hopelessly impracticable, on July 9, thus closing a tempestuous existence of seventy-four days. The Second Duma was like unto it. Meeting on February 20, 1907, it was

dissolved on June 3, with just over a hundred days to its credit.

Then the sovereign saw that he had opened the doors too wide. He made changes in the electoral system, applying the principle of the electoral college which, nominally, elects our Presidents. These changes had the effect of throwing preponderant power into the hands of the landed gentry; the class which made the ablest parliaments the world has ever seen, the English Parliaments of the nineteenth century. On this basis the Third Duma was chosen, and met on November 1, 1907. It served the full five years of its legal existence, and was succeeded by the Fourth, the present Duma, which met in November, 1912. In this Fourth Duma, there are nine parties, somewhat as in France, ranging from the Monarchists on the right, to the Socialists on the left. But one may say that practically two-thirds of the members are Moderates, while one-third are Radicals of various shades.

Curiously enough, it was only after the election of the Third (the effective) Duma, that the Russian revolution really got under way. But even while the revolution raged, the Duma, acting with the Czar's Ministers and the upper house, was doing very effective work.

#### III. TURNING THE PEASANTS INTO MEN

In his early days, Parnell asked Davitt whether there was any chance for an agrarian agitation in Ireland; whether the Irish peasants would follow his lead in a struggle for the land. "Yes!" answered Davitt; "they will follow you to the gates of hell!" There was something of the same fervor in the attitude of the Russian peasants toward the land; and, just as, in Ireland, the practical settlement of the agrarian question by the various Land Purchase Acts knocked the bottom out of the revolutionary movements there, and turned the Irish peasants into stanch Conservatives, so the settlement of the land question in Russia, in a somewhat similar way, has taken all the steam out of "the Russian Revolution," and is turning the Russian peasant into a sober, practical citizen of a wholly new and very desirable type.

To make a man, an independent peasant proprietor, of the Irish serf, it was necessary to buy out his landlord. In Russia, it was not the landlord, but the village-community, that had to be bought out. It is true that, in 1861, Alexander II. planned a scheme by which the former serfs might purchase land



from their landlords, paying for it in instalments to the state; exactly along the lines followed by Gladstone in 1881, and by Wyndham in 1903. But the vast majority of the peasants were left in thralldom to their ancient socialistic village-communities; for, as Sir Henry Maine so convincingly showed, the real place of Socialism is the past, not the future. Socialistic experiments are throw-backs to ancient history.

There were in Russia, at the time of the Japanese war, some seventy million peasants, gathered in village-communities, with a huge, straggling settlement of log houses as the center of each. Of villages with not more than 100 inhabitants, there were more than half a million. The land about these villages, owned in common, was distributed every seven years, being cut up into little parcels, so as to give some land of each kind and quality to each household. So it might often happen that the holding of a peasant's family consisted of a hundred strips of land, some of them no larger than ten feet square, and as much as twenty miles from his home. He wore out soul and shoes walking from one little "cemetery-plot" to another; and, at the end, if he had made improvements, drainage, clearings, or fertilizing, he saw them all "redistributed,"—practically confiscated,—at the end of the seven years. The results were poverty, thriftlessness, apathy.

Why are the peasants of France the happiest, the richest, the most effective in the world? Because each one of them knows that he owns his farm down to the center of the earth; and that every stroke of work he puts into it, every ounce of fertilizer, will come back to him, and to his wife and children. On such terms, any man will work and save; and the reaction on his character, in thrift, energy, providence, self-respect, will be of incalculable value.

It was to bring about a like happy result in Russia, that the policy of Land Purchase, chiefly associated with the name of the late Premier Stolypin, was directed, and "Stolypin's farmers," as the new Russian peasant-proprietors are called, are already counted by the million. Within a few years they will number a hundred million; a new race, strengthened, invigorated, rendered responsible and self-reliant; busy, through intensive cultivation, enriching themselves and their nation.

The practical difficulties in the way of this great transformation were enormous; but the most serious have already been overcome. It required an army of land-surveyors merely

to take stock of the lands to be converted, and this army had to be created and trained. This was successfully and rapidly done. Then the village-communities had to be brought round to the new view, since their lands could only be distributed with their consent and good-will. Then, for every village which did thus consent, it became necessary to lay out parcels of land of from thirty to forty acres for each family, in such a way that all would feel that they were fairly treated. Then of each such plot two maps had to be made, one of which was kept by the owner, while the other was filed at the Ministry of Agriculture. And, last but not least, the new farmer had to transfer his house to the center of his farm. This was comparatively simple, seeing that a log house can be taken to pieces and put together again, almost like a house of children's building-blocks.

Already some 10,000,000 acres a year are being redistributed in this way—turned from communal to individual ownership; and as the peasants see the great practical benefits the change will go on still more rapidly.

Meanwhile, the older land-purchase, not from the village-communities, but from the landlords, had been making good headway. To aid this process, the Peasants' Land Bank had been established, in 1882, and up to the time of the Japanese war, some 20,000,000 acres had been bought in this way. In November, 1906, a law was promulgated permitting all peasants who had begun the purchase of their holdings at the time of the emancipation to become freeholders of their allotments, all redemption payments still due being remitted. This splendid concession applied to about 280,000,000 acres.

So that in these two ways a new race of peasant proprietors is being built up in European Russia, while in the wheat belt of Siberia free grants of forty acres each are being distributed by the government. There is enough land of the highest quality in Siberia to settle ten million Russian families.

#### IV. RELIGION AND EDUCATION

The old-time Russian peasants, grouped in village-communities ruled by their own customary law,—practically, little self-contained republics,—were nevertheless blended in a common unity,—largely by the fervor and sincerity of their religion. "The people of the land," said an English writer two years ago, "have made it a vast sanctuary, perfumed with prayer, and filled with the memories of their faith."

Through this great religious nation, a new

spirit is now stirring, a spirit of energy, of vigor, of hope. It is expressing itself, among other ways, in a new movement of education, applying primarily to the children of the vast peasant class, which now numbers a hundred millions. And with admirable good sense they are laying stress on the things practically useful to the new nation of peasant-proprietors. Thus very many villages possess their school fields and gardens, in which the children learn to plant and cultivate the fruits and vegetables and grains of their district. In addition to this, there are a thousand schools that teach bee-keeping. Three hundred give instruction in the culture of the silkworm. In nearly a thousand, trades and industries are taught, and hundreds more specialize in manual training. During the last ten years there has been much activity in the establishment of new educational institutions all over Russia, notably technical and commercial schools, under the new Ministry of Commerce. It is curious that the ministry and the Duma are pulling somewhat in opposite directions, in one part of the field of education, the ministry favoring the classical side of the schools, while the Duma rather favors the scientific side. It is worth noting, too, that Russia has long held an advanced position in the education of girls. In university education, the drift at present is toward physics, chemistry, and the natural sciences generally.

## V. THE NEW INDUSTRIAL LIFE

The long, white winters have had a peculiar influence on the industrial life of Russia, developing not so much "cottage industries," as "village industries," in which many hundreds of men and women take part in a common enterprise. The whole village, which may number thousands, is generally devoted to some special occupation, one village producing felt shoes, another flax thread, another wooden spoons, a fourth iron nails or chains, and so on. So certain gubernias (states) have grown famous for certain commodities. Moscow produces wicker-work, baskets, and furniture; Kostroma carves wooden bowls and silver ware; Yaroslav and Tula produce samovars and saucepans; Vladimir makes ikons; Nijni Novgorod makes a specialty of knives and scissiors; Tver produces saddlery and harness. Thus we have, among the peasantry themselves and as a part of their indigenous life, the beginnings of an enormously productive industrial system, side by side with their agriculture.

Out of these village industries, which seem to be absolutely peculiar to Russia, at least among European nations, large factories are springing up in the villages, doing the same things better, more systematically, more commodiously, and employing as many as ten or twelve thousand hands. Among the more rapidly growing industries are cotton-spinning, the making of linen, from the rude peasant fabric to the most beautiful damask, the spinning of silk, and the manufacture of beet-sugar. In Petrograd, Moscow, and Warsaw, there has been a great development of tanning, and the dependent industries of shoe and glove making; while new and well-built factories are turning out paper, flour, tobacco, and hemp ropes.

The list of these industries suggests,—what is one of the strongest points of the situation,—that, in every one of these lines, Russia has her own practically inexhaustible supplies of raw material. She is as self-contained and as self-supporting as it is possible for a nation to be. Of raw materials, there are two great classes: those which grow in the ground, and those which are dug out of the ground. In both, Russia is marvelously supplied. In lumber, she possesses the largest forests on earth, stretching from the Baltic to the Pacific Ocean. Her cereals are one of the world's great supplies. She has long been a great flax country. Her expansion into Turkestan has made her a great cotton country. In the north, she grows millions of tons of rye and oats. In the south, fine grapes, tea, oranges, and tobacco flourish. There is, in fact, practically nothing that grows that Russia does not produce.

As for metals and minerals, only two facts need be quoted. At one end of the scale, Russia is running France neck and neck for fourth place among the iron-producing nations of the world. At the other end, she supplies, from the Ural mines, almost the entire platinum output of the world. Her railroads are increasing enormously in mileage, there being few engineering difficulties on her vast, flat plains. In 1860, Russia had 1000 miles of railroads; in 1885, 16,000 miles; in 1905, 40,000 miles; and the increase since has been equally rapid.

## VI. THE JEWISH QUESTION

Russia numbers, to-day, 180,000,000—the greatest white nation the world has ever seen. On her western frontier, there are settled some 5,000,000 Jews, chiefly inherited from Poland, which offered them an asylum when the nations of Western Europe were



persecuting them. Towards these Jews Russia's policy has been negative. It has practically amounted to bidding them remain where they were, when the Western districts were annexed. That is the real history of "the Jewish Pale." It is a question of political inertia and economic precaution, not of religious persecution.

On this last point, let me quote an authority as impartial as the "Encyclopedia Britannica": "In his relations with Moslems, Buddhists, and even fetishists the Russian peasant looks rather to conduct than to creed, the latter being in his view simply a matter of nationality. . . . The numerous outbreaks against the Jews are directed, not against their creed, but against them as keen business men and extortionate money-lenders. Any idea of proselytism is quite foreign to the ordinary Russian mind," as indeed is sufficiently shown by the continuous satisfactory relations between Russia and her millions of Mohammedan and Buddhist subjects.

Nevertheless, the Jews of Russia's western frontier have felt pressure, and have bitterly resented it, filling the ranks of the revolutionary societies at home, and fiercely attacking Russia when they go abroad. So it has come about that we in America are prone to see the vast nation of 180,000,000 through the hostile eyes of 5,000,000 aliens,—or, indeed, far less than 5,000,000; for many Jews are well-disposed to Russia, both at home and among those who have emigrated. In just the same way, we have been prone to see England through the eyes of the Irish Fenians, who came here after the abortive outbreak of 1867. In both cases, a narrow, bitter, and essentially unjust view resulted.

But, just as the Irish-American irreconcilables of the Clan-na-Gael have long ceased to represent even their own fellow-countrymen, so the anti-Russian Jewish opinion here is becoming unrepresentative and out of date. And this from two causes. The Czar's proclamation of religious liberty was followed, in 1907, by a relaxation of the rules which kept the former Polish Jews within the Pale; and, as occasion has permitted, there have been other ameliorations of the position of the Russian Jews. Notably so, since the opening of the great war, in which new opportunities to serve with distinction in the army have been given to Jews, of which they have splendidly taken advantage; showing that they possess high qualities of military valor, and that they are fired with the same love of their fatherland that flames in the hearts of all Russian soldiers,

So that, in Russia, the question of that little minority of Jews is settling itself. Much can be done, in this country, to aid and soften that settlement: first, by American Jews; next, by the American Government. Let the Jews here recognize that the wrongs are not all on the Russian side,—that seldom happens in this vale of tears,—and, admitting the difficulty of Russia's task, and her sincere effort to fulfil it, let them drop the bad habit of ceaselessly girding at Russia, whether she be right or wrong. And let our Administration remember that we have our own problems of citizenship here. Since the Civil War, which was to confer equal rights on the negro, we have deprived millions of negroes of certain political rights; and, to the citizens of the land of Confucius, the oldest civilized nation in the world, the nation which has been, for centuries, the most literate, we have denied any rights of citizenship at all. There may be a necessity for this. That is not the question. But, while laboring under this necessity,—if so it be,—at home, let us not be priggish and Pharisaical about the difficulties of others.

## VII. THE PROSPECT

Russia has gained, in the last ten years, a population of forty millions. In the next ten years she will gain still more, having then a population of 225,000,000 or more. The bulk of this vast population are of one blood, sane and unspoiled, with high ideals, saturated with humane and religious principle. They are, as we saw, just entering on a new era of free yet stable government, of new development in agriculture, in education, in industry, and, still more, in manhood and citizenship. To such a nation, the heritage of the future belongs; and the splendid moral and physical qualities of the Russian millions are a magnificent promise to the human race.

Writing in the *Vorwaerts* at the end of March, Professor Vogt, a well-known German authority on Russian affairs, said: "It will take a long time, great energy and patience, and many victories to gain headway against this new Russia. Russia's offensive powers have hardly been touched. Her staying powers are enormous. Her army has done magnificent work, while the Russian financial and economic position has seldom been better."

The German publicist may not be a willing witness to the greatness of Russia, formidable to her enemy, full of promise to her friends; but we may be assured that his testimony is true.



VIEW OF SEWARD, ON RESURRECTION BAY, DESIGNATED BY PRESIDENT WILSON AS THE PACIFIC OCEAN TERMINUS OF THE GOVERNMENT ALASKA RAILROAD SYSTEM

(It was founded by John E. Ballaine, of Seattle, in 1903, and was named by him for Secretary of State William H. Seward, who negotiated the purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867. The Alaska Northern railroad, seventy-one miles long, which the Government bought to form part of its trunk line, has its ocean terminus at Seward)

# ALASKA'S GOVERNMENT RAILROAD

BY JOHN E. BALLAINE

[Mr. Ballaine, the writer of the following article, is a native of Iowa who grew up on a farm in what is now Washington State. He became a newspaper man and later Secretary to the Governor and Adjutant-General of the State of Washington. After military service in the Philippines, Mr. Ballaine turned his attention to railroad-building in Alaska, originating the Alaska Central Railroad, now known as the Alaska Northern, which he sold to Canadian interests, from whom the United States Government has now bought it to form a part of its trunk system. As long ago as 1902, Mr. Ballaine states, he surveyed the entire railroad route as now adopted by the Government. He was the founder of the town of Seward and now owns gold and other mining properties in Alaska. He always upheld President Roosevelt's withdrawal of Alaska coal lands and vigorously supported the Pinchot policies as they applied to Alaska. Mr. Ballaine is particularly interested in the development of Seward and has recently secured pledges in New York for \$50,000 each for a public library, a Y. M. C. A. building, and a Y. W. C. A. building to be erected there.—THE EDITOR.]

IT has been a long and hard fight to determine whether Alaska should be a private province for private exploitation, or whether its opportunities should be applied to building up a large and permanent population of independent Americans in Alaska for the good of all the people of the United States.

After a struggle extending over many years, success for the policy of development in the interest of the public at large came only when President Wilson and his able Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Lane, put the whole force of the administration behind the Alaska railroad bill and its twin companion, the Alaska coal leasing bill, as administration measures.

The route designated by President Wilson for the Government railroad in Alaska, after a year devoted to surveying and examining all possible routes under the supervision of the Alaska Engineering Commission, runs from the southern coast at Seward through the Susitna Valley and Broad Pass to the Tanana River, and is the central strategic route formed by the mountain ranges and the river systems.

Close by where nature provided this strategic route, it deposited the best of Alaska's coal measures, several of its extensive gold and silver veins, all of its known iron and tin ores, and copper without limit. To all these it added extensive valleys fertile in grazing and agricultural lands, which it planted in





MAP SHOWING ALASKAN MOUNTAIN RANGES, NAVIGABLE RIVERS IN HEAVY BLACK, AND THE ROUTES OF THE NEW GOVERNMENT RAILROADS AS DESIGNATED BY PRESIDENT WILSON

(The principal known mineral deposits and mining districts are indicated in the numbered circles, as follows: 1, Port Dick district, copper; 2, Sunrise district, gold; 3, Resurrection district, copper; 4, Falls Creek district, gold; 5, LaTouche district, copper; 6, the Bering River coal fields; 7, the Valdez district, gold and copper; 8, Iliamna district, gold and copper; 9, the Bonanza mining district, owned by the Alaska Syndicate, copper; 10, the Matanuska coal fields, and Matanuska iron and gold district; 11, Willow Creek district, gold; 12, Yentna district, gold; 13, Talkeetna district, gold and copper; 14, McKinley district, gold and silver; 15, Broad Pass district, gold and copper; 16, Nenana coal fields; 17, Kantishna district, gold; 18, Hot Springs district, gold, silver, and tin; 19, Fairbanks district, gold; 20, Circle district, gold; 21, Rampart district, gold; 22, Chandler district, gold; 23, Eagle district, gold; 24, Koyukuk district, gold and coal; 25, Kuskokwim district, gold; 26, Ruby district, gold and coal; 27, Ophir district, gold; 28, Iditarod district, gold; 29, Georgetown district, gold; 30, Nulato coal fields; 31, 32, and 33, Seward Peninsula districts, gold. From Cordova to Kennicott, the Copper River & Northwestern Railroad, 199 miles, owned by the Alaska Syndicate. From Seward to Nenana, Government railroad route, 412 miles, with 38-mile branch to Matanuska coal fields, and projected branch of 395 miles through the Kuskokwim Valley to the Yukon.)



THE TOWN OF FAIRBANKS, ALASKA

forests of hemlock, spruce, and birch. Then, as if to give full measure, it carved out a harbor at the southern end of the route, Resurrection Bay, famous as one of the most magnificent in the world, where the commerce of Alaska's railroad system and the commerce of the world with Alaska are to have their ocean gateway for all the centuries to come.

The map of Alaska on the opposite page shows the physical features, indicates the railroad route designated by President Wilson, and marks the locations of the principal known mineral deposits. It shows at a glance why the President designated the

route where he did, under the provisions of the law that directs him to locate and build not to exceed 1000 miles of Government-owned railroads at a cost not to exceed \$35,000,000, so as best to develop the resources of Alaska and connect an open harbor on the southern coast with the navigable rivers of the interior.

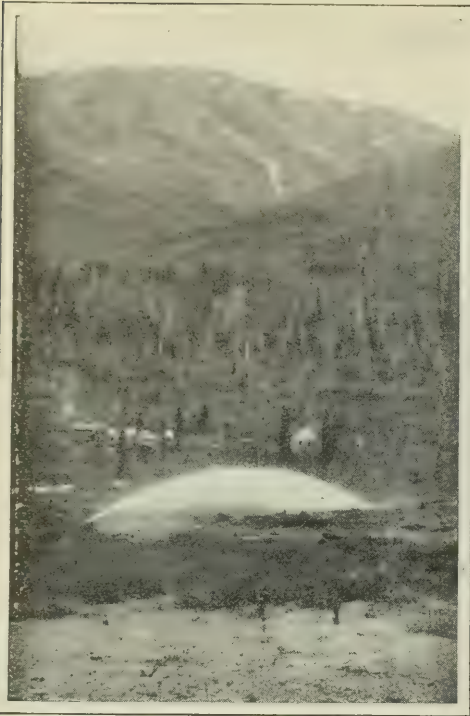
#### RIVERS AS "FEEDERS"

The rivers of interior Alaska, of which the Yukon is the main artery, flow generally from east to west. The Yukon itself, from the point where it enters Alaska at Eagle to its outlet at the Bering Sea, is more than



A RANCH IN THE TANANA VALLEY, ALASKA





PLACER MINE ON THE KENAI PENINSULA, ALASKA

1400 miles. It receives another 1500 miles of navigable tributaries in the Tanana, the Chandler, the Porcupine, the Koyukuk, and the Innoko. The Kuskokwim, the second largest river in Alaska, has 600 miles of navigable water, with which the branch railroad through the Kuskokwim Valley will connect at McGrath.

In all, these rivers give 3500 miles of navigable waterways in interior Alaska, besides water in Canada, ready-made to serve as feeders for the Government railroad the day it reaches the Tanana, 412 miles from Seward, with the short branch to McGrath.

#### KENAI PENINSULA AND SUSITNA VALLEY

En route from the coast to the Tanana, the railroad will traverse the Kenai Peninsula, absorbing the present Alaska Northern, completed for seventy-one miles, which the Government has bought to form a

part of its main trunk line. The Kenai Peninsula, 18,000 square miles in area, surpasses Switzerland in grandeur of scenery. It is the hunter's paradise for bear, moose, mountain sheep, and smaller game as well. It is studded with gold and copper veins, and its valleys and mountain slopes are green with dense forests.

Beyond the Kenai Peninsula the railroad will ascend the fertile agricultural valley of the Susitna, 150 miles long by 75 wide, and from 100 to 700 feet above the sea. It is one of the best and largest of Alaska's agricultural areas. Grasses, berries, timber, and coal are its distinctive products, but it has gold, silver, copper, and iron also. The route taps the Matanuska coal fields with a branch thirty-eight miles long. It passes through the Willow Creek gold-quartz district, one of the richest in Alaska, and comes within easy reach of the Yentna gold district, the McKinley gold district, and the Talkeetna gold and copper district.

#### GOLD AND COAL FIELDS

Emerging from the Susitna Valley through Broad Pass in the Alaska Range, 320 miles north of Seward, at an elevation of 2600 feet, it bisects the recently discovered Broad Pass gold district and the long-known Broad Pass copper district. Thence it follows down the Nenana River through the Nenana coal fields, where seven veins one above the other have a total thickness of 286 feet, according to actual measurement by the United States Geological Survey. While the Nenana field is lignite and not to be compared with the



THE ALASKA NORTHERN RAILWAY (A PORTION OF THE GOVERNMENT SYSTEM) NEAR SEWARD

Matanuska, it nevertheless will be an important source of supply for the interior.

A few miles below the Nenana coal fields the route cuts the western end of the Bonfield and the eastern end of the Kantishna gold districts, finally entering the great Tanana Valley, where it is fifty miles wide, and reaching the Tanana River at the mouth of the Nenana.

#### REACHING THE HEART OF ALASKA

There, in the geographic center of Alaska, it connects with more than 4000 miles of navigable river waterways. On these streams are many steamboats and barges that handle the commerce and passengers of the numerous thriving settlements and mining districts on or near the river banks.

The advantage of this route over any other in Alaska is not alone that it traverses the best and the most of Alaska's resources of every kind, but it is the only possible route by which the Matanuska coal is made available alike for the United States Navy, for all parts of the Pacific Coast as far south as San Diego, and for every town and mining district along the railroad and its branches and along the system of navigable rivers with which the railroad will connect; it is the only feasible route that can join the agricultural valleys with the markets of the mining districts and the industrial centers to be developed; it is the only route from which feeders and branches may be projected to every productive part of Alaska.

The Matanuska coal, which this route opens, is the only coal on the entire Pacific slope which has measured up in every offi-

cial test with the best coals of Pennsylvania and West Virginia. It therefore must bear the same relation to the commerce and the industries of Alaska, of the Pacific Slope, and of the Pacific Ocean that the coals of Pennsylvania and West Virginia bear to the commerce and industries of Pennsylvania, of the Atlantic Slope, and of the Atlantic Ocean.

The new country that will be tributary to the Government railroads between the coast and the Yukon and along the connecting navigable rivers in Alaska is larger than the populated portions of Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Denmark combined. Those four countries have 12,000,000 population and 14,000,000 head of livestock; they produce annually soil crops worth \$250,000,000. Alaska's climatic conditions and theirs are identical. The area of Alaska's tillable land is twice the area of theirs. Alaska has in addition storehouses of mineral wealth unsurpassed in the world, which those four countries have not.

By comparison, Alaska should and some day probably will support 20,000,000 red-blooded Americans as easily as the four small countries of Northwestern Europe support 12,000,000 population, and will carry on a commerce with the rest of the United States amounting in time to many hundreds of millions a year.

As Secretary Seward's fame has come to rest mainly upon his negotiating the purchase of Alaska from Russia, so as time passes the outstanding feature of the Wilson administration will be the building of this system of Government-owned railroads to open and populate Alaska.



SEWARD FROM THE WATER FRONT



# PROHIBITION IN CANADA

BY J. P. GERRIE

THE progress of temperance in Canada during the past half-century has been gradual and effective. At no time have the measures for the suppression of the liquor traffic been drastic and summary, yet the movements for its overthrow have been steady and relentless. Dominion measures, such as the Dunkin Act in 1864, allowing the sale in five gallons or more, and the Scott Act in 1878, a county prohibitory measure, found ready acceptance, but later proved ineffective; and a plebiscite in 1898 recorded a large majority for prohibition, yet not sufficiently pronounced to warrant enactment.

Local option by provincial law, on the other hand, has made great headway in most of the provinces. Nova Scotia (the city of Halifax excepted) is fully under prohibition, as is the whole of Prince Edward Island. New Brunswick has 15 counties out of 25, and 3 cities out of 5, "dry." In Ontario 539 municipalities out of 832 have adopted local option, and this in face of a clause requiring a three-fifths majority. But for this, the local-option column would be very much larger. Quebec has done even better, not so much by legislation as by clerical coöperation and influence, making 859 parishes out of 1168 "dry."

In addition to all this legislation and co-operation, great strides have been made in otherwise reducing licenses, as in Toronto and other important cities, and in restricting the hours and days for the sale.

The last ten months, however, include more of the startling than any former period in Canada's temperance legislation.

First came the general elections in Ontario last June, when the Hon. N. W. Rowell, leader of the opposition, made "Banish the Bar" his chief slogan. Very few gains were made to his following, but this may be accounted for by adherence to party at the polls rather than to principle, the fine record of local option in the face of a serious handicap, and sympathy for the veteran premier, Sir James Whitney, whose administration had been good, and who rose from what proved later to be his deathbed to lead his campaign.

The Manitoba elections followed soon after, with a like slogan from the opposition headed by the Hon. T. W. Norris. The result was the reduction of the large legislative majority of Sir Rodmond Roblin almost to the vanishing point, and the placing of his administration in a minority of the popular vote.

Meanwhile, Alberta has been busy formulating a measure for the abolition of the bar, to be voted on July 21, in connection with which a strenuous campaign is now in progress. The measure is modelled after an act passed by the Manitoba legislature, which successfully ran the gauntlet of the courts, so that, as a Provincial enactment, its constitutionality will not be challenged. The proposed act places the retail of intoxicants for medicinal, scientific, and sacramental purposes in the hands of vendors appointed by and directly controlled by the Government.

The greatest surprise of all came from the sister prairie Province of Saskatchewan (incorporated in the same year, 1905). On March 20, the Hon. Walter Scott, Premier, announced that the legislature would be convened early in May, to enact a law abolishing the bar and club-room sale of intoxicants from July 1 until the conclusion of the war,—the electors then to decide as to the restoration, but not before December, 1916. In the meantime, the Government will take over the wholesale business through dispensaries, which will be abolished in 1919 if the electors so decide. The announcement also intimated the closing of the bars at 7 P. M. instead of 11 P. M. No proposed or actual temperance legislation in Canada has ever evoked so widespread attention.

British Columbia alone remains to be heard from; and in view of the drastic and unexpected in Saskatchewan, anything may be forthcoming from the Pacific province, even though a Conservative administration is in power, under Sir Richard McBride, while in all other provinces the Liberals have taken the initiative for the abolition of the bar. It would seem that the time is at hand, in the Dominion of Canada, when any party which refuses to espouse temperance reform in the most advanced way must fall.



AT WORK IN THE GREENHOUSE, PENNSYLVANIA HORTICULTURAL SCHOOL FOR WOMEN

# NEW OPEN-AIR VOCATION FOR WOMEN IN HORTICULTURE

BY KATHARINE SPEER REED

FOUR years ago a small group of prominent club women in Philadelphia caught a vision of a practical training in horticulture for women: one to include theory with actual day-by-day, month-by-month practise with the growing things.

The outcome of their belief in their vision was the purchase of seventy acres of excellent farm land about sixteen miles from Philadelphia, near the pretty suburban town of Ambler, and the School of Horticulture for Women became a fact. Starting with one student and two instructors, the school now has a waiting list of students and ten teachers. One building has grown to several, with plans drawn for others already greatly needed. One small greenhouse has branched out into three of goodly size.

America, curiously enough, with all her vast land resources and clever women, has been far behind other countries in opening this career to its women. England, Germany, Russia, Belgium, Italy, and Denmark have graduated hundreds of girls to well-paid positions as managers of public or private gardens, independent commercial work, or as consulting horticulturists, lecturers, and

teachers. Of course many American women have made good as florists, market gardeners, managers of fruit farms or orchards; but until recently no adequate practical education along these lines has been offered in this country.

During the two years required to complete the regular course each student plants and cares for a small plot of ground under instruction, for which she is held responsible. She has care also of certain parts of the greenhouse, nursery, orchard and vineyard, combined with practise in the various horticultural operations not considered too heavy for her.

She is required to keep a daily record of her work. In this way she becomes familiar with the length of time required for the germination of seeds and the development of flowers, fruits, and vegetables.

Canning and preserving form a required part of the course, as the conserving of surplus fruits and vegetables is of great economic value. Training in the principles of simple carpentry is also required, and the students are taught to make cold frames, boxes, flats, tool lockers, tables, and simple furniture.





STUDENTS EXAMINING YOUNG PEACH TREES TO SEE IF "CUTS" FROM OTHER VARIETIES OF PEACH TREES HAVE "TAKEN" (i. e., ARE GROWING PROPERLY)

(The students have practical outdoor work all the year round to supplement, immediately after they are given, lectures and classroom work in various branches)

Handling dynamite in blowing old tree stumps for a new orchard is a startling part of the knowledge acquired in the junior class. Bees are made a most fascinating study, and a thorough course in poultry raising is under an experienced specialist. Chemistry is studied in its relation to soils and the proper use of fertilizers, insecticides, and fungicides. The course in entomology introduces to the student her friends and foes among growing things, with methods to protect the former and combat the latter. Landscape gardening, commercial law, market methods and book-keeping, school gardening, care of the wood lot, and greenhouse construction all have a place in this comprehensive training.

About twenty acres are used for the school in the various branches of horticulture and the remainder for farm crops. Much of



MISS JESSIE T. MORGAN, PRINCIPAL  
OF THE PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL OF  
HORTICULTURE FOR WOMEN

that part used for horticulture is given to special plantations for practise and experimental work for the students. This includes an old apple orchard, a number of pear trees, young apple, peach, plum, and cherry orchards, a vineyard of about 250 vines, a large variety of small fruits, flower and vegetable gardens, nurseries, greenhouses, hot beds, cold frames, bee colonies, and a poultry plant.

This spring an extensive meeting of men and women interested in all pleasure and profit derived from Mother Earth will take place on the school grounds in connection with a big back-to-nature pageant.

Fascinating work, a good living, if the knowledge gained is commercialized, and health would seem to make of this outdoor career a wise choice for American girls of the future.

# SCENIC PARKS IN NEW YORK STATE



THE JOHN BOYD THACHER PARK, ALBANY COUNTY, N. Y., LOOKING NORTHEAST FROM CREST  
OF ESCARPMENT

**I**N the April REVIEW there was published a suggestive letter from the Hon. Stephen T. Mather, Assistant to the Secretary of the Interior, regarding the great National Parks of the West and their management. In former numbers of the REVIEW there had appeared a series of articles dealing with these national scenic reserves, as well as descriptions of smaller undertakings in the interest of States and municipalities in the Eastern portion of the country. The suburban and mountain parks of Massachusetts, for example, are described in an article that appeared in Volume XXXV., page 561, and the interstate movement in New York and New Jersey for the preservation and protection of the Palisades of the Hudson has been followed from its inception by this magazine.

It is possible, at this time, to report decided progress, not only on the Palisades Park work, but also on the great Bronx

River Parkway project of New York City and Westchester County, and on the New York State reservation near Albany, which bears the name of the late John Boyd Thacher. The photographs reproduced on this and the following pages serve the double purpose of indicating, in a way, the scenic riches of the Empire State and demonstrating, at the same time, how much can be done by organized



THE PALISADES AT THE SOUTHERN END OF THE INTERSTATE PARK  
(Photograph loaned by the Commissioners of the Palisades Interstate Park)





VIEW FROM BEAR MOUNTAIN PARK, LOOKING NORTH UP THE HUDSON RIVER

effort and at slight expense through governmental agencies to restore natural scenery to its pristine condition even in the immediate vicinity of a crowded metropolis. When the Commissioners of the Palisades Interstate Park began their labors under the laws of the States of New York and New Jersey their efforts were practically concentrated on the reclaiming of the rocky walls of the Hudson from the vandalism of quarrymen. With the acquisition of the important quarries by the commission, this vandalism was, of course, brought to an end and the commission was enabled to turn its attention to constructive work. Along the shore at the base of the Palisades, ground was filled in where necessary for recreation, camping, and playground purposes, and docks and landing beaches have been constructed so as to make the park easier of access to all. Work has also been continued on

the Henry Hudson Drive, a roadway which will eventually follow the shore of the river for many miles. Camping privileges are offered to the public, the period of continuous camping being limited to four weeks. Since its organization the scope of the commission has been greatly increased and it has now acquired control of prop-



CAMPING ALONG THE PALISADES

(Both photographs reproduced on this page were loaned by the Commissioners of the Palisades Interstate Park)

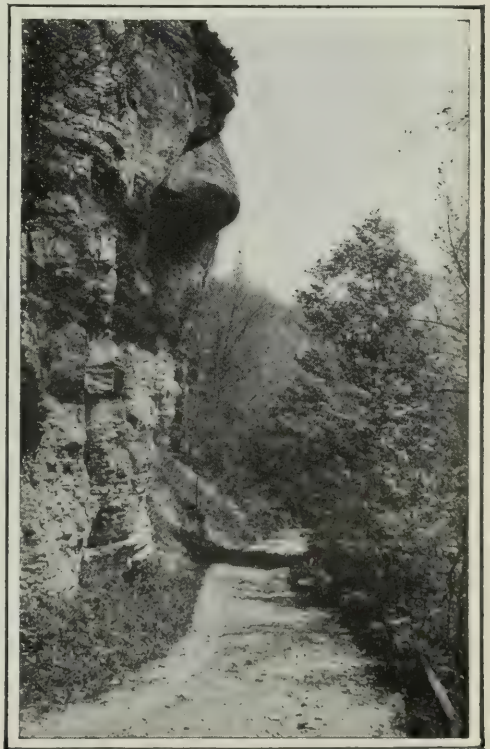


LOOKING NORTH FROM CREST OF ESCARPMENT ON MINE LOT FARM, JOHN BOYD THACHER PARK

erty up the Hudson River far beyond the limits of the Palisades. At Bear Mountain, on the west side of the Hudson near Highland Falls, the commission maintains playgrounds and roads, boat houses and docks, and there is a regular steamboat service from New York City. The commission also has jurisdiction over Harriman Park, the great forest reserve ceded to the State of New York by the estate of the late E. H.



MINE LOT FALL, JOHN BOYD THACHER PARK



LOOKING DOWN THE INDIAN LADDER ROAD





HOW THE BRONX RIVER PARKWAY HAS BEGUN ITS DEVELOPMENT WITHIN  
THE LIMITS OF NEW YORK CITY

(See below on this page view of same site before work was begun)

Harriman. Important forestry work has been undertaken here by the commission, and during the past year about 400,000 trees have been planted.

One year ago the State of New York accepted from the widow of the late John Boyd Thacher, a distinguished citizen of Albany, a tract of about 350 acres of land in the famous Helderbergs, from twelve to fourteen miles directly west of Albany, as a public park to serve as a memorial to Mr. Thacher, who had long been a public-spirited leader in State and national affairs. This tract includes some of the most noteworthy scenery in the State, and has been known to geologists the world over for the special interest of its rock formations. Its historical associations also, in connection with the anti-rent disturbance and other events in New York State history, make it a place of peculiar interest to all residents of the Empire State. Like Letchworth Park (described in this REVIEW for February, 1912), Stony Point Battlefield, and other State properties of historic interest, the John Boyd Thacher Park is to be ad-

ministered by the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society. The accompanying photographs, kindly loaned by the society, serve to give some impression of the unusual scenic beauties which will make this park attractive to tourists.

The policy of the State of New York in relation to natural scenery is exemplified in the reservations at Niagara Falls and Saratoga Springs, and the Adirondack forests, under State administration, are every year becoming more accessible to nature-lovers.

The project for a parkway along the Bronx River valley connecting Bronx Park, in New York City, with the Kensico Reservoir in Westchester County was outlined in this REVIEW for May, 1907. As explained at that time the cost of this development is defrayed jointly by the City of New York and the County of Westchester, the former paying three-fourths and the latter one-fourth of the expense, and the whole work is conducted under the direction of a commission of three members appointed by the Governor of



SAME SITE AS IT EXISTED FOR MANY YEARS PRIOR TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PARKWAY

(Note the obtrusive advertising signs, the litter, and unkempt appearance of the premises on the banks of the Bronx River, which is naturally a watercourse of unusual charm)



THE BANKS OF THE BRONX IN WESTCHESTER COUNTY RESTORED TO THEIR ORIGINAL GRACE AND BEAUTY BY THE WORK OF THE PARKWAY COMMISSION

the State. The progress of the work has been slow because of the difficulty, during the past few years, of securing large appropriations from either the State or the county. But in spite of unpreventable delays, the commission has succeeded in acquiring about two-thirds of the total amount of land necessary to complete the project. Much of this land has been given outright, and in all cases the heavy expense of condemnation proceed-



THE SAME SITE AS IT APPEARED JUST BEFORE THE COMMISSION BEGAN ITS LABORS, AFTER ENDURING YEARS OF DEFACEMENT AND NEGLECT





A SECTION OF THE RECLAIMED BRONX BORDER IN SCARSDALE,  
WESTCHESTER COUNTY

ings has been avoided, all transfers having been made by private agreement. On those portions of the strip to which the commission has obtained title enough work has been done to give a clear idea of the possibilities of the project. The series of pictures that we present herewith show the marked contrasts that have been brought about, in several instances, between the banks of the Bronx in their neglected state and after a few months of care

under the hands of the commission. Enough has been done to show that within a very few years there will extend northward from the present limits of the metropolitan park system a strip of parkway which for natural beauty will be comparable with the Wissahickon Drive of Philadelphia or the Fenway of Boston. We are indebted to the commission for the photographs from which these illustrations have been made.



THE SAME SECTION "BEFORE TAKING" THE PARKWAY COMMISSION'S  
TREATMENT



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

GENERAL VIEW OF THE EXPOSITION—THE PUENTE CABRILLO IN THE FOREGROUND

# THE FAIR AT SAN DIEGO

BY BENSEL SMYTHE

**S**AN DIEGO, California, six years ago decided to stake her future on a single throw,—her Exposition. Many of her own citizens thought it a foolhardy proposition. Almost everybody outside of the little city regarded it as preposterous.

Nature had planned a great city on the shores of San Diego Bay, "the first port of call in God's country," if the world only knew it. San Diego was determined that the world should know it.

The dominant idea seized for the Panama-California Exposition was a complete Spanish city to suit the traditions and architecture of Southern California. The site chosen was a 1400-acre park in the city's heart, overlooking sea and mountains, business and residential districts. And San Diego proceeded in the following years to create an Exposition so entirely unique, and of such surpassing beauty as utterly to confound criticism.

Now is the dream of six years ago come true. The San Diego memorial to the opening of the Panama Canal is no longer a project: it is a "going enterprise." And like any other great new business concern, Uncle Sam is curious to learn how it is succeeding.

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS is the first magazine to publish the story of the San Diego

Exposition, "three months after the opening day." Throughout the West, and even in San Diego itself, the common report has been that the attendance is very meager, and that the enterprise is losing money every day.

These are the facts, up to April third; and they have never before been made public:

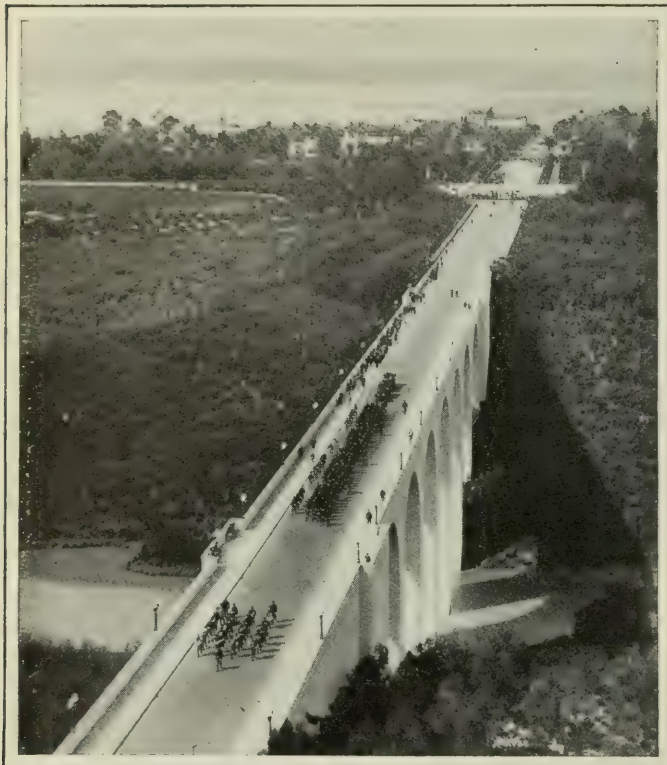
## THE FINANCIAL REPORT

The Exposition, as a business concern, lost \$3,000 in its first month, January. In February it made \$13,000 above its entire operating cost. In the month of March it made a net profit of \$24,467.97. The receipts for March amounted to \$64,439.28; the expenses were \$39,971.31.

The operating expenses at the start were fixed to care for a larger attendance than so far has been experienced. Expenses were materially reduced during the second month. The average daily expense during March and April is fixed at \$1250.

The San Diego Exposition is an \$8,000,000 business concern. The city bonded itself for \$3,000,000, and through State and additional municipal and individual aid another \$2,000,000 was raised. The value of the exhibits is approximately \$3,000,000. The





THE PUENTE CABRILLO, ONE OF THE WORLD'S FINEST CONCRETE BRIDGES,  
A FEATURE OF THE EXPOSITION ARCHITECTURE

ground occupied by the Exposition itself, 614 acres, is in the midst of a magnificently developed 1400-acre park owned by the city.

#### THE ATTENDANCE REPORT

The complete attendance figures for the three months were also given the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, from the auditor's books. They are: January, 180,270; February, 133,168; March, 153,042. The average daily attendance the last two weeks in March was between 5400 and 5500. The average for the first week in April was approximately 6000. These records show that the number of people visiting the Exposition is steadily increasing with the growth of the year.

The Exposition is to-day on a money-making basis. It is conducted on strict business lines by a very able group of business men. There is reason to believe that it will pay a good dividend on its stock at the end of the year. This statement of facts will be a surprise, to California at least.

#### THE SPANISH STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE

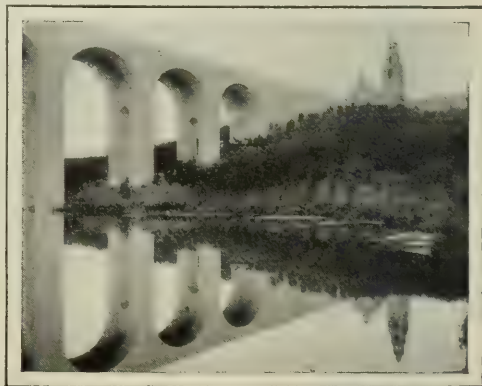
Americans who have read much about California history, but who have not seen

California, imagine it to be a land dominated by the old Spanish Mission style of architecture, with Spanish crosses and Mission cloisters and arches peeping out from dense orange and lemon groves on every hand. The State has them all, although they do not dominate the landscape.

But for the people from all parts of the land who go to see San Diego's Exposition, it is their ideal visualized. There the fairy Spanish city is a reality. Old courts and patios abound. Stately towers reach into the restful blue of California skies. A carefully trained wilderness of tropical plants delights the eyes. It is a sweet and restful land, where "castles in Spain" seem realities; a land in which to "loaf and invite your soul."

The Exposition contains ten main exhibit

buildings, and everything about them is true Spanish-Colonial in design. For sheer beauty of natural and architectural effects, this Exposition probably is the most delightful and satisfying spot in America to-day. The landscape gardening surpasses that of any other Exposition and is as nearly perfect as nature and man can make it. From the grounds one of the world's most beautiful views is commanded.



ANOTHER VIEW OF THE PUENTE CABRILLO



PART OF A CROWD OF SEVERAL THOUSAND LISTENING IN FEBRUARY TO AN OUTDOOR CONCERT OF ONE HUNDRED VOICES AND THE LARGEST ORGAN IN THE WORLD

(The organ, costing \$100,000, was the gift of John D. Spreckels)

#### THE EXHIBITS

The one weak spot for San Diego is the exhibits. There were not enough exhibits available in the world this year entirely to satisfy the ambitions of two great Expositions holding forth at the same time in the same State. San Diego has many varied and marvelous things to show in her buildings, but it is in no sense a "world's fair." It is, however, the most complete presentation of what California and the



©1915 Panama California Exposition

THE CALIFORNIA STATE BUILDING

southwestern part of this country have done and are doing that has ever been made. The history of the politics, science, and soil development of the Southwest is here in vivid form. Nine-tenths of the total exhibit space is now fully occupied. Probably the most interesting single feature is the ten-acre model ranch, started in the grounds four years ago. We see that and we all wish we had just such a little ranch in California somewhere.



## ACCOMMODATIONS FOR THE VISITOR

It is safe to tell the many thousands of people in the East and Middle West who plan to come to the Pacific Coast during the summer and fall that they will be well pleased with the way San Diego treats them. They can afford to spend four or five days there. Between two and three days at least should be spent at the Exposition. A day should be set aside for rest, as exposition-seeing is hard work. Another day can be used in viewing San Diego itself and her very attractive surrounding country.

When the tourist reaches Los Angeles, which is the gateway to San Diego, he may take the trip the rest of the way either by rail or by water. The train reaches San Diego in three hours and a half, and it is a delightful five hours' ride on the sea.

A careful investigation has determined that San Diego hotels and apartment-houses are not attempting to "hold up" the tourist. They have signed an agreement with the Exposition to charge regular winter rates, which are about one-third higher than summer rates, but are by no means excessive. Restaurants and cafeterias (the latter a great California institution) have not raised prices one cent. The cafeterias furnish good fare at very moderate prices.

The street-car service to the Exposition is first-class in every respect. People are carried to the grounds direct from every section of the city. The service is supplemented

by the new "Jitney" auto buses, several hundred of which are operating.

A man and wife in average circumstances can live very well in San Diego for one week, go to the Exposition every day and spend a little money on its "Isthmus," for between \$35 and \$50. And as much more as they desire.

So far this season the travel to the Exposition has been largely composed of the "private car" and "stateroom" class. The two largest and most expensive hotels have been full every day. The railway yards have been well filled with private cars and special trains have been quite a regular feature.

With the close of schools and the beginning of summer vacations it is expected the rush of the great American middle class to California will begin. It is probable that many people from the States of Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico, and from Southern California, will spend their vacations at San Diego.

The city is not crowded. There is plenty of room, and plenty of really comfortable room, for all who will come, and there is every indication that the Exposition will have a successful attendance throughout the summer.

For a city of some 70,000 people, San Diego has done one of the biggest and most wonderful things in the history of American cities. Her Exposition would be a distinct achievement for a world-metropolis.



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ACROSS LA LAGUNA DE LAS FLORES

# TRANSATLANTIC CABLES AND THEIR CONTROL

BY P. T. McGRATH

ONE of the outstanding features of the war now being waged in Europe is the advantage which the possession of the transatlantic telegraph cables gives to the contestant who controls these,—a fact illustrated by Germany's protest to the United States against the refusal of Britain to transmit code messages either by wire or wireless across the Atlantic.

## NEWFOUNDLAND AS A HALF-WAY STATION

A second feature of this situation is the primacy possessed by Newfoundland in regard to the Atlantic cable situation. She enjoys the distinction of being the birthplace of transoceanic telegraphy,—both by wire and wireless. In August, 1858, over fifty-six years ago, Cyrus Field laid the first submarine cable between Kerry, Ireland, and Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, and in December, 1901, Guglielmo Marconi received at St. John's the first electric signals through his wireless medium, transmitted across 2000 miles of space from his station at Poldhu, England.

The reason why both these pioneers in the field of electrical research chose Newfoundland as the theater of their wonder-working experiments is that it is the nearest point in America to Europe, the half-way house of the continents. Owing to the short stretch of ocean to be bridged here, as compared with New York (little more than half the distance), the prospects of success for such tests were better than elsewhere, and when an aviator proposed an airship flight across the Atlantic, he planned to proceed from St. John's to the Azores and thence to Spain for the same reason.

## RAPID GROWTH OF COMMERCIAL TELEGRAPHY

Prior to Field's advocacy of a line under the Atlantic, one across the British Channel was the most that science had compassed, and Field was regarded as outstepping all bounds of reason when he launched his larger project. His initial venture failed practically, though succeeding theoretically, and it was not till 1866 that regular transatlantic

cablings were really begun effectively. Yet we find that the commercial use of telegraphy, by land and sea, has grown so rapidly in the fifty years since then that there are now 1764 corporation and government cables, with a length altogether of 204,527 nautical miles, while on land there are 5,044,200 miles of telegraph lines, over which land lines 1,400,000 telegrams and over which cables 36,000 messages are sent daily, an annual total of 478,320,000 telegrams and 14,140,000 cablegrams. Nor is there any apparent relaxing of activity in these directions. New telegraph lines are being built daily, and the cable-making factories of Europe are constantly employed producing these electric nerves, by means of which to bring into direct and responsible contact with the great centers of the world its most remote regions. The telephone is a close connection of the telegraph, and, although little over thirty years have elapsed since the first experiment was made by Graham Bell, which proved the possibilities of electrical transmission of speech, the telephone has now become an almost indispensable factor not alone to commercial, but also to domestic existence.

## CONTROL BY AMERICAN CAPITAL

This situation is of exceptional importance to the United States because to-day American capitalists control all the cables across the Atlantic operated by English-speaking agencies. In order to understand this it is necessary to remember that there are now seventeen working cables across the Atlantic, distributed as follows:

Four "Anglo-American" cables between the British Isles and America, via Heart's Content, Newfoundland.

Three "Western Union" cables,—two between the British Isles and America, via Bay Roberts, Newfoundland, and one via Canso, Nova Scotia.

One "Direct U. S." cable between the British Isles and America, via Harbor Grace, Newfoundland.

Five "Commercial" cables,—two between





OCEAN CABLE SYS.

the British Isles and America, via St. John's, Newfoundland; two via Canso, and one via Horta, Azores.

Two French cables,—one between Brest and New York, via St. Pierre, Miquelon, and one via Cape Cod.

Two German cables between Borkum and New York, via the Azores.

The Anglo-American Cable Company enjoyed a fifty-year monopoly in Newfoundland which made it impossible for any other cable company to effect a landing there until 1904, but as soon as this prohibition was removed all the other cable companies at once began to seek terms of entry and to-day every one of them has some cables landing on its shores and is maturing plans whereby the remainder may be brought in. Some have cut the existing cables from the British coast to the Canadian or American littoral to land them on the Newfoundland seaboard, and the landing place of these cables is as follows:

Trinity Bay, 4 Anglo-American cables.

Conception Bay, 2 Western Union and 1 Direct cables.

St. John's, 2 Commercial Cable Company cables.

Early in 1912 all the British telegraph cables in the North Atlantic, those of the Anglo-American Telegraph Company, were secured by the Western Union Telegraph

Company of New York, under a 99-year lease, the one cable owned by the Direct United States Cable Company being also secured on similar terms. The result of this was that the control of every cable submerged in this section of the ocean, except the two French cables and the two German cables, passed under American control, and even the German cables may be virtually said to be so controlled also as to their western ends, because the Commercial Cable Company has an alliance with them. This brought about the astonishing situation that, although the United States has never manufactured a cable, all this work being done either in England or in Germany, American capitalists are absolute masters of this whole system of intercommunication across the Atlantic, with all the advantages appertaining thereto.

#### ENGLAND'S CABLE SYSTEMS

Except on the North Atlantic, however, Britain enjoys very largely a monopoly of the control of the world's cables. Through the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and all over the Far East, through the West Indies to South America and over the African Continent, most of the cables are hers, and she also owns one of the two cable systems of the Pacific Ocean, extending to



TEMS OF THE WORLD

Australia and from there to Borneo, Sumatra, and China. This gives her a great advantage commercially and also is of immense benefit to her, when a great war is being waged, as now. It is of interest at the present juncture to note that in 1858, when the first congratulatory message was sent by the then President of the United States to Queen Victoria over the newly submerged Atlantic cable, he asked "that all civilized nations should declare, spontaneously, and as the result of a general agreement, that the electric telegraph shall be forever neutral; that the messages to be entrusted to it shall be regarded as secret, even in the middle of hostilities."

In the fifty-six years that have since elapsed, in spite of civilizing advances made otherwise, this pious desire has remained untranslating into a reality, and one of the first developments after the outbreak of the present war was the cutting of the German cable, with the result that the German Empire was deprived of this source of communication with the outside world. In the meantime, England, "like a great overgrown spider," as a French writer put it some years ago, "has enveloped the whole world in a network of submarine lines, so that nothing can happen anywhere without being immediately known in London."

The dependence of other countries on British systems is almost absolute. When the Spanish-American war broke out, Spain had no independent and trustworthy communication between Madrid and Havana; she was obliged to communicate with Cuba over British cables, some of which possessed American connections. In the same way, France, in conducting the business of her colonies abroad, has to make use of British cables very largely. Germany, too, has only possessed her own cables to America within the past ten years, and when the two cables were destroyed a few weeks ago, she had no other outlet except through lines controlled by her most formidable antagonist.

#### AGITATION FOR A BRITISH STATE-OWNED CABLE

In spite, however, of this monopoly, Britain is not too well satisfied with the situation across the Atlantic, especially since her cables have passed to American hands, and at the present time there is a vigorous agitation in progress to secure a state-owned Atlantic cable to be the complement of the state-owned Pacific cable, which now extends across the latter ocean from British Columbia to Australia and New Zealand and is maintained by joint contributions of the British, Canadian, and Antipodean Governments.

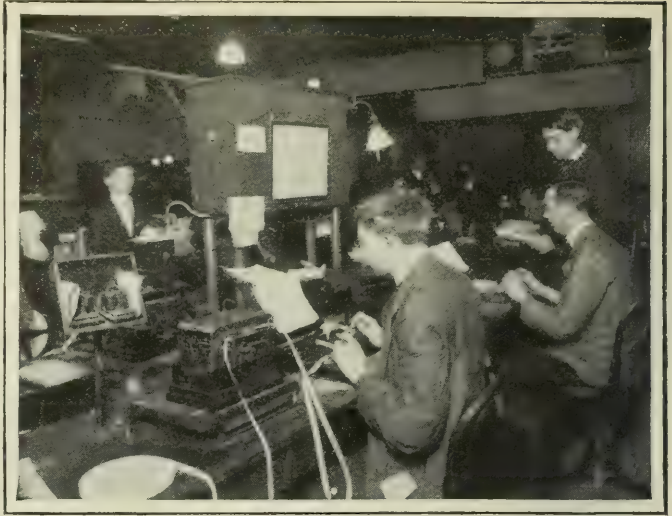


This cable was constructed and laid about twelve years ago, to compel a reduction of rates by the British company-owned cables, which then extended through the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean, and which, possessing a monopoly, could fix their own charges. The laying of the state-owned cable has brought about since then a reduction of these charges to about one-third of what they were originally, and it is argued that the laying of a state-owned Atlantic cable would compel similar reductions on this side.

It is claimed that a cable can be constructed and laid across the Atlantic for less than five million dollars, and that a group of cables as efficient as either of the two existing cable groups to-day can be submerged for thirty million dollars, or about one-third of either the capitalization of the existing groups, so that whereas now these groups have to charge high rates to pay dividends upon stock which it is alleged is "watered" the charges might easily be reduced to one-half or one-third of those at present prevailing. Indeed Mr. Charles Bright, son of the man who laid the first Atlantic cable, and himself a cable engineer of eminence to-day, has advocated a general rate of sixpence a word for cablegrams transmitted to any part of the British Empire on the same principle that to-day a two-cent stamp will carry a letter from England to Australia. His idea is that the traffic revenue of the various cable lines to different parts of the Empire should be combined or "pooled" and a uniform dividend be declared, but so far nothing has come of the proposal, though it is not unlikely that in course of time this result may be realized.

#### HOW CABLE IS MADE AND LAID

A submarine telegraph cable is merely a land-line completely isolated for its whole length, as water is so potent a conductor of electric force. A cable consists of three essential parts,—the core, or conductor, of copper, because that is the best conducting substance known; the skin, or insulator, of gutta-percha, because this is quite as effective in its resistance to the electric current; and the shield, or protector, of steel wire, to



THE WESTERN UNION'S CENTRAL CABLE OFFICE IN THE STOCK EXCHANGE BUILDING, NEW YORK CITY: THE SENDING END OF THE CABLE.

strengthen the cable in handling and submerging, and to protect it against the dangers of chafing on the bottom of the ocean, especially in shoal water; of injury by marine insects, and of damage from various other causes.

England makes most of the world's cables nowadays, but some are manufactured in Germany. Cables are made in two-mile lengths and as each such section is completed, its electrical resistance is tested by a special machine and carefully noted. When a cable is made it is put on board the cable ship which is to submerge it. There are now over forty such steamers employed, not wholly for laying cables, of course, but for repairing them when injury occurs. Damage to a cable when submerged is evident by its failure to operate, and then the ship has to proceed to the vicinity of where the break exists, grapple for the cable, bring it to the surface, cut it, and splice in a new section so as to enable it to energize again. By determining the resistance of the effective portion of a damaged cable, it is possible to put a repairing steamer within a mile or so of where the break occurs, and repairs are sometimes very speedily made, though on other occasions, because of bad weather or other causes, weeks are often occupied in this work.

The cable is stored in tanks in the ship's hold, and when she reaches the place where the laying process is to commence, she lands a "shore-end," a section bound with steel to the thickness of a man's arm to withstand the chafing of the surf, winds, and currents. This



THE WESTERN UNION'S CENTRAL CABLE OFFICE IN THE STOCK EXCHANGE BUILDING, NEW YORK CITY: THE RECEIVING END OF THE CABLE

the other side of the ocean, the cable is handed over to its owners and the regular transmission of messages over it has begun. In this work manual and automatic instruments are used. The cable operators who use the former send about one hundred words per minute by manipulating a key somewhat like that used by operators on ordinary land lines. But when the pressure of business is too great, an automatic machine is used which can send 250 letters a minute, by feeding it with paper tapes on which other men have punched by means of other instruments dots and dashes representing the

is taken to the cable house, usually a short distance above high-water and to which the cable is laid in a trench, and then the ship steams seaward, putting out the cable as she goes. The process is continued day and night, or from seven to ten knots an hour, as the weather warrants. An Atlantic cable is usually laid in little over a week. The last Atlantic cable was laid from Penzance, Cornwall, England, to Bay Roberts, Newfoundland, in thirteen days by the *Colonia*, the biggest cable-laying ship in the world.

In passing it may be noted that if a steamer is putting out a cable in 2600 fathoms (three and one-half miles) of water at the rate of seven knots an hour, the distance from the stern of the ship to where the cable touches the ooze, is no less than twenty-seven miles, and that it takes three hours for a particular point of the cable to reach the bottom after it leaves the stern of the ship. When the process of laying the cable has been completed and the end is put ashore on

Morse telegraph code as adopted by international conference.

One of the marvels of the submarine telegraph is that if a cable of a given type is doubled in length, its working speed is reduced to one-fourth of the original, and this fact has to be very carefully considered when a new cable is designed. Another marvel is that all ocean cables are "duplexed," which doubles their capacity, enabling the transmission and reception of a message over the one wire at the same time. This is done by providing a counterbalance, or "artificial cable," at either end, composed of "condensers," boxes of paraffin, and tinfoil in alternate layers,—forming improved Leyden jars of sufficient electrical energy to "split" the current on the real cable and allow the passage of two sets of signals, one in each direction. Thus, under favorable conditions, it is possible to transmit a message from New York to London over an Atlantic cable and receive a reply in four or five minutes.





# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## TOPICS IN THE CURRENT PERIODICALS

THE *May Century* has three important articles suggested by the war: "The Ounce of Prevention," by R. M. Johnston, drawing on the respective experiences of Switzerland and Belgium for examples of military unpreparedness; "War and Drink," by James Davenport Whelpley, showing what has been accomplished by Russia in the direction of prohibition; and "Poland's Story," by Judson C. Welliver. Paul M. Warburg, of the Federal Reserve Board, is characterized by Harold Kellock as a revolutionist, although this writer admits that Mr. Warburg is probably the most modest-mannered man that ever personally conducted a revolution, and his revolution consisted merely in winning over to his own ideas of banking and finance the support of the whole American nation.

"The Right of a Child to Two Parents," by Mary Ware Dennett, argues that it should be the joint and equal business of both father and mother to rear children. An interesting estimate of "The Art of E. H. Sothern" is put on record by William Winter, who concludes that because the sum-total of this actor's achievements is substantial and admirable he is deserving of the public's gratitude and esteem. A plea for proportional representation, which ought to be read by every member of the New York State Constitutional Convention, is forcibly presented by N. I. Stone under the title, "Shall the Majority Rule?" "Justice for the Small Man," by David A. Baer, describes the workings of a modern municipal court.

This month's instalment of "Cabbages and Kings," the series of personal recollections of rulers and their courts, by the Infanta Eulalia of Spain, is devoted to the Russian court.

Although many articles on the war are appearing from month to month in the American periodicals, it cannot be said that the war, as a topic, dominates the pages of American quarterlies and monthlies as it does those of England, France, and Germany. A fairly typical instance is supported by the current issue of the *Yale Review*, in

which about one-fourth of the space is devoted to articles relating directly or indirectly to the great conflict. Of the four articles falling under this category, the first, contributed by the English philosopher and writer, L. P. Jacks, on "England's Experience with 'The Real Thing,'" is the most piquant and thought-provoking. It is, in fact, a keen and shrewd analysis of the British mind in this time of stress and crisis. His conclusion is that the real thing which England is now facing is producing a mental condition favorable to some kind of spiritual rebirth. Accustomed sophisms and easy generalizations no longer find utterance. "An unaccustomed honesty is being forced upon us," and it is the belief of this writer that truth itself will at last come to its own.

Professor Archibald C. Coolidge, of Harvard, gives an admirable fifteen-page summary of the claims of the various European nations that will demand recognition in the treaty settlements after the conclusion of peace. Professor Benjamin W. Bacon examines the imperialistic ideal in its relation to Christianity. Professor George G. Wilson, of Harvard, concludes from his study of the neutralized states of Europe that up to the present time neutralization has been based upon policy, and that while the existence of neutralized states has served to a degree as a means for the conservation of peace, neutralization must in the future become more easily possible, and the method of its maintenance must be more clearly established and amply secured, if it is to produce the desired results. Neutralization treaties have been heretofore regarded as binding only while the provisions of such treaties were in accord with the interests of the several parties. Some more effective sanction is required if such treaties are to be counted on to produce the anticipated results.

Other articles of this number are: "English Literature in France," by Emile Legouis; "The Journeying Atoms," by John Burroughs; "The Railroad Crisis: A Way Out," by Ray Morris; "An Apology for Old Maids," by Henry Dwight Sedgwick;

"Ovid Among the Goths," by Gamaliel Bradford; "The Unity of the Churches," by Newman Smyth; "Walpole and Familiar Correspondence," by Chauncey B. Tinker; and "Xanthippe on Woman Suffrage," by Duffield Osborne.

Three of the twelve articles in the *Constructive Quarterly* (New York) are concerned with the war: "The Churches, the War, and the Future," by Principal W. B. Selbie, of Mansfield College, Oxford (the nonconformist viewpoint); "The Catholic Church and War," by Mgr. Batiffol, of Paris, and "The Church and War," by Henry T. Hodgkin, Secretary of the Friends' Foreign Mission Association, of London.

The *International Review of Missions* is notable for the absence of any expression of opinion concerning or even of references to the course of the war. For the current quarter the principal articles are: "Black and White in South Africa," by Maurice S. Evans; "Christian Literature in the Mission Field," by John H. Ritson; "The Vital Forces of Southern Buddhism in Relation to the Gospel," by W. C. B. Purser; "Self-Support in the Church in the Mission Field," by Henry T. Hodgkin; and "The Work of Continental Missionary Societies." This latter article describes the work of the Protestant missionary societies on the continent of Europe as it was carried on before the outbreak of the war. The facts outlined in this summary have not been accessible heretofore in any satisfactory form in English, and so have not been generally known even to those interested in missions in Great Britain and America.

In the *Forum* for April Dr. J. S. Schapiro, writing on the "War of the European Cultures," ventures the prediction that "England, with her new individualism radiating social emotions, her tolerance and her mellowness, not autocratic Germany, however efficient, will lay the spiritual foundations of the society of to-morrow."

Other essays in this number of the *Forum* are: "An Artist's Morality," by Horace Holley; "Seeking the Shade of William James," by M. H. Hedges; "Liberty and License," by H. M. Aubrey; "Life's Primal Architects," by E. Douglas Hume; "Crying for the Moon," by Bruce F. Cummings; "Highbrow and Lowbrow," by Van Wyck Brooks; "More About Inspired Millionaires," by William MacDonald; and "The Maddening Mr. Meredith," by Elizabeth Frazer. There is also a brief play, "The Double Miracle," by Robert Garland.

The opening feature of the *North American Review* for April is a twenty-page onslaught by the editor on the Hon. Josephus Daniels, Secretary of the Navy, who is termed by Colonel Harvey "our First Lord of the Admiralty."

Speaker Champ Clark writes in this number on "Cloture"; James B. Duke, former head of the American Tobacco Company, on "Politics and Prosperity"; a Bulgarian, Svetozar Tonjoroff, on "Russia's Struggle for an Outlet"; Booker T. Washington on "Inferior and Superior Races"; Bishop Brent, of the Philippines, on "Christ as the Hope of the World"; David Lawrence on "Our Foreign Policy and War," and President Henry S. Pritchett on "Should the Carnegie Foundation Be Suppressed?"

The current number of the anonymous *Unpopular Review* opens with a sensible and temperate statement on the subject of our national defense. The author advocates the adoption of certain features of the Swiss plan and commends the practical training given during the summer periods in the so-called Leonard Wood Camps. A writer who shows great familiarity with the history of Eastern Europe shows that the present war is offering only another opportunity to the Slav to push on to the westward just as he has been doing throughout the past century, "slowly, glacially, but steadily," and the Slav, says this writer, never goes back.

An article on "Property and Law" is a protest against the extremes of present-day humanitarianism and a frank, bold plea for a restoration of property to its dominant place in our system of jurisprudence. There are two articles in this number on competition, one a defense, and the other scarcely less than a *reductio ad absurdum*, the writer of the latter article finding his most effective illustration in the great war.

Another writer finds the chief cause of revolution in Mexico in monopoly of the land, "by it the poor brutalized, the rich materialized, the middle classes and public opinion non-existent, an Egyptian darkness of illiteracy, appalling drunkenness, serfdom of the peon, terrible, terrible poverty." This writer, who is a single-taxer, believes that even his remedy is not sufficiently drastic for the peculiar conditions in Mexico, and he does not shrink even from confiscation. Confiscation, he admits, is an ugly word, but there is a far uglier one,—starvation. "As between confiscation and starvation, shall a people starve?"



# THE REAWAKENING OF RUSSIA

ALTHOUGH the Russian Government is no doubt receiving hearty support from the people in prosecuting the war, yet there is a struggle going on within the Empire in which the two sides that present a united front to the foreign enemy stand arrayed against each other in a fight for power and mastery. Between the bureaucracy and the popular will there is less harmony to-day than at any time since the suppression of the revolution. More and more strongly the people are asserting themselves in emphatic demands for greater liberties.

The last session of the Duma voted additional three milliards of rubles for the war, but before doing so the deputies wanted to know what the government was going to give the people in return. The government at first declared that it would do nothing at all, that it would follow the same policy in the future as in the past. Then the significant thing happened, which shows that the spirit of rebellion against despotism is again active in Russia. The people's representatives raised such a storm of protest that to placate them the government was compelled to modify its uncompromising attitude and to yield to the extent of at least making some vague promises. In the Petrograd *Nashe Slovo* the following account is given of the deliberations that took place in the short Duma session:

The questions of the terms of peace and of internal reforms were discussed. The government declared that it does not wish to deprive Germany of any of its territory. It wants nothing but Galicia and the Dardanelles. The Constitutional Democratic deputies insisted mainly upon the Dardanelles.

In the second sitting, when it came to the question of reforms, Maklakov, the minister of the interior, declared that the government would make no concessions. It would pursue the same course as heretofore. His statement produced a scene of the greatest disorder in the house. The deputies jumped from their seats, and the president was obliged to declare a recess. When the Duma reassembled, Goremykin made a statement somewhat softening the harsh impression created by Maklakov's blunt refusal to consider the demands of the deputies for a freer Russia generally, for better treatment of Finland, and for guaranteeing equal rights to the Jews and stopping Jewish persecutions.

The insistence of the Duma upon an extension of the people's rights is not the only sign of the reawakening of Russia. All over the Empire the people are combining in efforts to force concessions from the govern-

ment. They seem to be perfectly aware of their advantage in the present crisis and are determined to make use of it for the liberalization and modernization of Russia. A Russian soldier, in a letter printed in the New York *Forward*, writes:

All the nationalities throughout the Czar's dominions are keenly alert for their chance to obtain freedom. The Poles have displayed great skill in seizing the advantage offered by the extraordinary situation of the war. For the present they actually possess a state of their own in Warsaw, from which they control the whole of Poland.

Russian society is also on its guard. Two powerful organizations have been founded, the Territorial Assembly League and the League of the Cities. Their power and activity are daily increasing, and the Russian Government knows it has to reckon with them. The Russian press and the Russian intelligent classes have raised their heads. The alliance with the English and the French, who are fighting for freedom, has put the stamp of liberty upon Russia and ennobled the crude, uncultured pan-Slavism.

It is strange, but true. The activity of the Black Hundreds has ceased. They are as if congealed. Here and there they are still stirring. Maklakov and Scheglavitev raise their voices occasionally. The Jew is driven hither and thither. But generally speaking, they have fallen into a lethargy. A new life is developing in Russia. The old tolerates the new without protest. There are two Russias.

All are awakening to a new life, all are organizing, all are demanding a place in the sun.

Nevertheless, the Russian people realize that the government will not yield an iota of its power without a fierce struggle. It is generally understood that it is ready to back up its policy as expressed by Maklakov in the Duma with all the forces at its command.

Commenting on Maklakov's declaration, the *Novy Mir*, a Russian daily published in New York, writes:

This means that the Russian Government will continue to rule as it has hitherto with the nagaika and the knout, disregarding the people's representative and the demands of the various Russian organizations and societies. As until now, the government will continue to kill every manifestation of popular self-activity. It will continue to favor the parochial schools and keep the secular schools under the strict and constant surveillance of its officials. As hitherto, it will imprison or send to Siberia all those who dare to express dissatisfaction with the government. It will continue to persecute the Poles and the Armenians and to stir up the dark, ignorant masses against the Jews. It will continue its policy of fanning the flame of race hatred by pitting one nation of the Empire against the other.

Nevertheless, there are ample signs of a gradual

Russian reawakening, if we turn our gaze from above to the people themselves. The very war which seemed to strengthen czarism compelled the Czar's government to tolerate certain organizations and societies, both in the cities and villages, which it prohibited before. And the people are taking advantage of this freedom. Not only the propertied classes, but the peasants also are or-

ganizing. And though their organization will temporarily serve the victory of czarism, there can be no doubt, if we consider recent events in Russian history, that they are bound sooner or later to be used for overthrowing a government system which is antagonistic to the most elementary needs of the country in its economic and cultural development.

## GERMAN INFLUENCE IN RUSSIA

**I**N *La Revue* (Paris) the editor, M. Jean Finot, the well-known writer and publicist, discusses "Russia of To-Day and To-Morrow," declaring that Russian progress has been impeded by German influence. He draws a sharp distinction between the Russian people and their rulers, maintaining that prior to the outbreak of the war the nobles of the three Baltic provinces of Russia, all Germans, had a dominant influence on the evolution of Russian destinies.

Military leaders, statesmen, the highest officeholders, were recruited principally from the Junkers of Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia. Always intriguing with Prussia, toward whom they were attracted by similarity of tastes and aspirations, they can be considered only superficially Russians. Were it not for the immense extent of the empire and the resistance of the real Russians, this little selected body, working without restraint, would have drowned the Russian soul in the German ocean.

M. Finot predicts that the present war will prove to be for Russia a war of deliverance from Germanic tendencies. Nevertheless, he admits that German influence has not had its last word. While the Czar's proclamations offer peace and tolerance to his subjects, agents from Berlin are, at the same time, doing their best to foment trouble which threatens to discredit imperial decrees and promises. The newspapers of the "Black Band," so-called, are continually slandering France and England, and praising Germany. These newspapers are supported by high officials of German antecedents, who, according to M. Finot, are almost always responsible for Russian blunders.

Reverting to the Russo-Japanese war, M. Finot contends that one of the chief causes of that unfortunate conflict was the hidden influence of German diplomacy which drove Russia to dangerous ventures in the Far East in order that her power in Europe might be lessened. The war, indeed, nearly ruined the Russian Empire, and almost prevented the fulfilment of Russia's obligations to France. That war stands out to-day as one of the

most illogical conflicts in all history. The sincerity of the humanitarian aspirations of both nations has been proven by the perfect good faith with which they have accepted peace. One thing, in the opinion of M. Finot, must never be lost sight of,—left to itself, the Russian people is essentially peaceful. The idea of conquest is foreign to it. The only wars that have been popular in Russia have been those whose object was the deliverance of Slavic peoples.

Recent reactionary courses are attributed by M. Finot to the work of Germanized officials and the indirect influence of German princes and princesses and the German families long settled in the Baltic provinces. He regards the generous intentions of the Czar as sincere, but laments the fact that the bureaucrats find a way to reduce his projects to nothing. The Poles are persecuted and Russian prelates have even been sent into Galicia. Russian officials are organizing Jewish pogroms and deporting to Siberia Finnish representatives. What is the purpose of these vexatious measures, asks M. Finot, if not to compromise Russia in the eyes of her allies and alienate from her the sympathies of neutral countries?

In Russia there are at present more than 250,000 Jewish soldiers whose courage and devotion to their country are proved by the official communiqués. But the bureaucrats have been able to drive the Jewish wounded from certain places on the pretext that "they have not the right to live there"! Moreover, by organizing pogroms at the moment when the sacred union of the nation is at its zenith, they seek to destroy the harmony between Russian citizens and foment civil war.

Russia will need many millions for her economic and financial reconstruction; no matter what happens, she cannot dispense with the aid of international finance. Already the enmity of the great Jewish bankers is being aroused against her; those in the United States have shown their violent hostility to "Russian barbarism" as a result of the pogroms.

The Poles are giving proof of superhuman courage and devotion. Despite the devastation of their provinces and the destitution which is ravaging their lands, they are sacrificing everything, their lives and their last belongings, for the



profit of Russia and her allies. And the Russian bureaucrats choose this opportunity for exasperating Polish susceptibility and robbing the Poles of all faith in the Czar's promises!

Nevertheless, M. Finot's limited enthusiasm for the Muscovite Government does not

keep him from professing unlimited faith in the Russian people. "In the gigantic battle against barbarism, Russia will win her own salvation,—liberty for herself and deliverance for all time from Prussia and the Prussians."

## A POLISH COMMENT ON PRUSSIAN MILITARISM

ONE of the profoundest issues in the present European conflict is its ultimate effect upon Poland. How will victory upon one side or the other affect Poland? Will that sorely tried land realize at last its century-long dream of the rebirth of an independent national unity? And to which side do the sympathies of Polish patriots lean?

This last question is in some measure answered by some very remarkable letters addressed by the prominent Polish man of letters, Wincenty Lutoslawski, to his old friend, Professor Karl Muth. Professor Muth considered these utterances to be of such great import as indicating the feeling of a large percentage of the better class of Poles that he published them, by way of warning to his countrymen, in the February number of the *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (Munich), under the title of "National Polish Illusions." The article attracted so much attention, apparently, as to be reprinted in a pamphlet. A correspondent has just sent us this, with certain salient passages underlined, from which we quote at such length as our space permits.

Dr. Lutoslawski is a man of wide attainments, a *privat-docent* at the University of Geneva, an acknowledged leader among Polish intellectuals, a man of extensive international connections, and a contributor to English, Spanish, and Italian journals. He is said to have been connected at one time with an American university. The breadth of his attainments and interests is indicated by three of his recent works. One of these, *Volonté et Liberté*, was published in 1912 by Alcan of Paris; a second, *Seelenmacht, Abriss einer zeitgemässen Weltanschauung* ("Soul Power: an Outline of a Contemporary View of the World"), was published in Leipzig by Engelmann, and the third was published in England by Longmans, under the title of "The Origin and Growth of Plato's Logic." He has ties of friendship with many distinguished men in various countries, including Cardinal Mercier, of

Mechlin. Obviously, therefore, his attitude in this critical time is of great significance.

A friendship of some years between Lutoslawski and Professor Muth had made them fairly acquainted with each other's views, and the former, who is firmly convinced that there is a deep-lying chasm between the cultural and political ideals of Prussia and South Germany, had on that account felt Professor Muth's magazine, *Hochland*, published in Munich, specially suited for the presentation of certain of his ideas. It was this close acquaintance and connection which led the Polish leader to address a post-card to Dr. Muth shortly after the outbreak of the war containing the following significant passage:

This war, occasioned by the attack on two small countries, will not find an end until all dependence of one nation upon another has forever ceased, and only the victory of Western civilization over the assumed *Kultur* of the destroyer of Louvain and Kalicz can effect a deliverance from all national oppression. What we Poles may expect from Prussia was clearly shown us in Kalicz and Czenstochowa, and likewise in Zabern, Louvain, and Antwerp. Throughout their whole history the Muscovites have never had to acknowledge such atrocities. I should not count upon Russia were it not that it is now fighting against its own interests for Western civilization, with the aid of 600,000 Poles.

Professor Muth does not quote his answer to this direct and bitter avowal, but remarks that its nature may be in part divined by the reply he received, which, written in France and posted in Geneva, came to him uncensored:

Barby, January 8, 1915.

MY DEAR FRIEND:—

I perceive from your characteristic card of December 19 how little informed you are of the true condition of affairs. You are menaced with so terrible a disillusioning that I would fain prepare you for it. . . . Your land is threatened with poverty and misery, and internal dissensions, and these dangers can be diminished by foresighted Germans only if their conscience awakes and if they are able to regard themselves and their rulers in the light in which they have now long been regarded by public opinion in Europe and America. They have been making military

preparations for a robber raid continuously for forty-four years, while the western powers were unprepared and did not desire war.

But even in a military sense the Prussian system has not made good. In the hope of conquering foreign lands you have submitted to being dependent upon the most unintellectual Prussians. The Prussians are Germanized Slavs, the morally worst of their race, who have denied their ancestors through fear of force, and have now themselves become the exponents of force. Gurkhas are noble troops of an ancient race who are glad to fight with such barbarians. You yourself have complained for years that all creative power has disappeared in Germany. That is the result of Prussian lordship. The Prussians are northern Janizaries and are filled with the spirit of Islam,—fury of destruction, predatory greed, breach of faith. All this has been plainly proved and is generally accepted in the neutral lands which were formerly friendly to Germany,—in Italy, America, Sweden, Holland, etc.

No denial is of avail. The whole world is united against you, and your only excuse is that you have been deceived by your rulers. . . . The conscience of Europe is aroused in this crusade against the disguised Musselmans, the sham Christians of Prussian fabrication. We know that the partition of Poland was the first and greatest of the deeds of shame which later led to the destruction of Belgium. And the partition of Poland will be annulled after the war,—we shall obtain not only all our lands that we possessed in 1771, but also Silesia and Pomerania and East Prussia. These we shall righteously govern, and in a single generation all the Germanized Poles who dwell therein shall reawake to their national consciousness.

The English and the French have won the love of their subjects throughout the world,—the Prussians have never known how to do this,—they rouse only hate and contempt. Russia, that introduced abstinence from alcohol at a single stroke, stands morally far higher than Prussia, but Russia will not govern us, for we deserve independence.

The author of this vehement letter continues in the same vein, declaring that the Germans must learn modesty, that they will be very poor, and that no one in the world will buy German wares. He remarks that

centuries ago, most of the European peoples were Germanized, but that now there is a revival of old Celtic ideals and that "we now desire peace, justice, and national life,—things the Germans cannot give us, because they themselves do not possess them." He remarks further:

The victory of Western civilization over the nomadic hordes of Prussia, even with the help of the Moroccans,—who are more honorable than the Prussians, since they keep their contracts,—will be for the Germans also the beginning of freedom.

The letter closes with expressions of personal esteem and solicitude. A second letter, received shortly afterwards, Professor Muth found himself unable to give in full because of its harsh criticisms of the Kaiser. He gives extracts from it, however. One of these runs as follows:

For five years I have publicly predicted the war, and I have foreseen it for twenty years as a necessity and as the weightiest event in the history of the world. I read Italian, French, English, American, and German papers, magazines, and books upon the war and think of it constantly. I receive many private letters from participants upon both sides, from prisoners and soldiers. I take it very seriously as my chief business to investigate and determine the truth.

Professor Muth's comments are on the whole quite restrained and moderate, though he permits himself some final scathing remarks to the effect that it would be difficult to find such a partisan in all Germany outside a madhouse as this lecturer on philosophy at the University of Geneva. He closes with the words:

Censor! No, the German people have nothing to fear from such expressions, and should and must know how their enemies regard them. That a part of the national-spirited Poles also belong to these enemies we can scarce cherish any doubt in future.

## POLAND'S ATTITUDE

**B**Y journals printed in Poland which have just reached this country, we are enabled to see with certainty which side in the present world war Poland,—on whose territories the greatest battles are being fought,—favors. We had read that the Poles of Galicia, the division of Poland under Austrian dominion, were supporting the Austro-Prussian cause to the degree of forming Polish rifle corps for warfare against Russia. Now we see that the various journals of Russian Poland, which is the largest as well as most populous division of the former Polish

Republic, have generally declared against the policy into which the Austrian Poles had permitted themselves to be led.

Thus the Warsaw *Dzien* (Day) maintains:

The Conservatives, Democrats, Progressives, Socialists, and even non-partisans, to-day have a common platform in the exposition of their views of the present situation. All incline against Prussia and her ally. This attitude the various parties justify differently, but they arrive at common conclusions.

A resolution issued by the Realists and the



National Democrats of Russian Poland closes with the following passage:

Holding that the Polish community of Galicia constitutes scarcely a fifth part of the Polish nation, and that the appearance of its representatives in so important a moment in the name of the whole nation and its obtrusion upon the other divisions of Poland without an apprehension of the facts accomplished, is, therefore, a usurpation,—the undersigned parties, holding an attitude conformable to the will of the vast majority of the nation, bid the Chief National Committee in Galicia to cease immediately all action, the program of which is described in its communication.

In a statement issued on the same account, the Progressive party says:

In connection with the appeal of the Chief National Committee in Galicia addressed to the Poles, the Polish Progressive party makes the following declaration:

Political reason has enjoined on our nation to attend from the time of the three partitions of our country to the coalescence of the geographically dissevered, but spiritually homogeneous, parts of Poland.

By the sense of self-preservation we are enjoined, in sight of the rapacious aims of Germany in relation to the Slavonians, as well as in presence of the moment of the conflict of the Germans with the peoples of the West that lead in civilization, to stand on the side of the coalition of nearly the whole of Europe.

The national feeling enjoins on us to conquer any political agreement that menaces extermination to the Poseners, Silesians, Masovians, and Cassubes, who have been struggling for ages for their Polishness.

The Warsaw *Gazeta Poranna* (Morning Gazette) prints a fervent address to the leaders of the Polish people in Galicia. With this address a number of Warsaw students had cut their way through the cordon into western Galicia in order to apprise their compatriots under Austrian dominion of the real situation; and though many of them paid with their lives for its circulation, the rest did their work. In this address we read:

You call on us to go to combat in the chaos of the European conflagration,—with the Russian nation. But why, in this historic moment, have you forgotten the immemorial foe and oppressor of our nation,—the Prussian? How many times, not yet so long ago, have not you yourselves besought in vain your "noble and wise monarch" to defend our brothers of Posen from the acts of violence of his ally,—acts becoming the Teutonic Knights of old? Have the liberties which your "noble monarch" gave you by compulsion so blinded you, that, forgetting the Prussian, you see only one adversary,—him who in his tragic infatuation has been merely an incompetent imitator of his Satanic adviser, the Prussian?

Do you not see that Russia is bursting these Satanic bonds and is herself raising the sword against Prussianism; do you not understand that

in this struggle the Russian nation itself is being regenerated under the slogan of liberty, for which our forefathers already fought? Do you not see that not only Russia, but also the whole world, in the name of the highest human ideals, is offering up a bloody sacrifice of its sons, in order to squash the barbarian masked with specious culture? Do you not see that the nations which have not lost the sense of honor do not want to disgrace themselves, and are refusing aid to the Prussians? Do you not see that only your monarch is shedding Slavonic blood in order to help his ally to master the whole world?

Nobody will go hence on your summons; for our nation has sublimer ideals than the ideals of the Hapsburgs; it believes that liberation will come, if we shall afford great deeds, unanimous and common with the whole world and directed against the Prussians. We stand, therefore, shoulder to shoulder with those peoples which are going to the field of a second Grunwald, with full trust that the moment of the final overthrow of the foe of our nation and of all mankind will be the moment of the liberation and union of our Fatherland.

That the Poles under Russian and under Prussian dominion place their hopes by no means in the mere promise of the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, but in the character of the present war, is obvious from the Warsaw *Dzien*, which oppugns the Russian writer Dymitrowski,—who fears that the reactionary Council of State may thwart the promises of the throne,—by observing that the grant of new political charters to Poland will be effected with the neglect of the Council of State and the Duma, as it issues from the ante-bellum agreements of the states belonging to the anti-German coalition that all conquests of the war are subject to the decision of a common congress. Hence, the destinies of Alsace and of the German colonies, and of the Polish territories as well, will depend on the united decision of all the allied states.

This is confirmed by the *Gazeta Warszawska* (Warsaw Gazette), which states that the present war is waged in the defense of the weaker nations, and that it already at its commencement accomplished a gigantic revolution,—the recognition of the rights of nations to political being.

"The present war," continues the *Gazeta Warszawska*, "has, in this respect, made glaringly distinct the differences of the state idea of Prussia and of England. The German imperialism, which became in latter times the leading political thought of the reactionary German Empire, lay in the extermination of foreign nations; the English democracy rested on a different basis,—on the recognition of the rights of the nations entering into the composition of Great Brit-

ain. The British policy has paid in a high degree. All the British colonies, contrary to the hopes of Germany, have come actively with aid for the mother country in the present war. The gigantic British Empire feels itself unified more firmly than ever before. The English democracy wishes its political principles in relation to national affairs to triumph on the continent of Europe."

This almost unanimous feeling of the greatest part of the former Polish Republic led to the organization in Warsaw of the Polish National Committee. This committee, which was the first of the kind organized in the Russian division of Poland since the dismemberment of Poland, is, as it were, the germ of the future Polish government, when Poland shall obtain self-government. The committee was formed with the sanction of the Russian Government, which seems to argue the sincerity of the intentions of that government to give the Poles full rights and to unite their state divided in three into one whole, according to the promise of the Czar announced through the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholayevich.

At the meeting of this committee, which was held in Warsaw towards the close of November and was attended by all the Polish members of the present Russian Duma and of the Council of the Empire and all the members of the preceding Dumas, as well as a considerable number of representatives of various political parties and of eminent workers in the national field,—the committee adopted the name of the Polish National Council. The slogan of this convention was the union of the Polish territories in one whole and of the future political development of Poland on the basis of complete self-government, and a manifesto was issued to the

whole nation which reads in part as follows:

The Polish nation in these times is contributing with its entire force and power to the gaining of a victory over the Germans. Notwithstanding that the war has fallen on our country with a hurricane of misfortunes and destruction; notwithstanding that it has brought us ruin and complete devastation,—we yet endure these calamities calmly and with perfect serenity of spirit, confident of a bright morrow.

The Russian army has already set its foot on Polish territory in Austria. We now expect that it will enter the part of our nation that is possessed at present by the Prussian. In this far-reaching moment for our nation there stands before our countrymen in those parts of the territory of Poland the solemn duty to show in thought and deeds that they unite in aims with the rest of the nation in Poland.

That the Poles desire the complete conquest of the Germans is owing to their belief that the Allies, when they gain the victory, will be for the union of the territories of the former Polish Republic and the reconstruction of Poland as a political state, since it would not lie in the interest of France or England or the other states for Russia to increase her power and menace the world as Germany has menaced it hitherto. Besides, they believe that Russia, even though she emerge from this war victorious, will so much enfeeble her forces that she will not seek a strife with the united Poles nor a quarrel with her allies. And voices in the press and the cabinets of the rest of the Slavonic world show that it also will be for the reconstruction of Poland. Moreover, Russia to-day herself recognizes her error and injustice towards Poland; and having now got rid of the German tutelage under which she has been since Peter the Great, she will endeavor to mend her error, as it will be better for her to have in Poland a strong and sure ally than a foe that may in time become very formidable.

## TURKEY AND THE ALLIES

THE Turks are, quite aside from any question of censorship, the least articulate of Europe's peoples. It has been supposed that, like their rulers, they favored the German cause. But this has just been emphatically denied by an eminent personage of the Ottoman Empire who has been living in exile. We refer to His Imperial Highness, Prince Sabaheddine, the nephew of the Sultan. We present without bias the remarkable letter addressed by him to M. Jean Finot, the editor of *La Revue*, of Paris, and featured in that magazine for February 1.

The letter includes telegrams sent by Sabaheddine to the Turkish Minister of the Interior and to the Sultan himself. It is preceded by a brief editorial note which is worded as follows:

We have just received the following letter from S. A. I. Prince Sabaheddine, the nephew of the Sultan, and the eminent Ottoman reformer; the noble and courageous role he has not ceased to play in the recent history of Turkey is well known to all.

TO M. JEAN FINOT, DIRECTOR OF "LA REVUE."

DEAR FRIEND:—

You are familiar with the efforts which we have exerted to prevent the Government of Union



and Progress from plunging the Ottoman Empire into the most tragic adventure of its existence. Long before the commencement of hostilities we had drawn the attention of the committee to the perils to which we were exposed by its disloyal attitude to the Triple Entente.

At the beginning of August, when the first rumors became current that official Turkey desired to join Germany,—contrary to the will of the Turkish people and to that of all the other inhabitants of the Empire,—I sent to Constantinople the subjoined telegrams to implore the very persons who had unjustly condemned me to death to avoid this madness.

## I.

"TO HIS EXCELLENCY TALAAT BEY, MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR, CONSTANTINOPLE:

"The terrible nightmare which menaces the whole of humanity imposes upon me the sacred duty of drawing the attention of Your Excellency and of the Imperial Government to the infinitely useful and noble rôle which our country can play in the present tragic circumstances. This rôle might have real efficacy in securing the triumph of the better cause, by bridling the Germanic ambitions which so unjustly menace the peace of Europe, as well as the true interests of the German people and the immediate future of our national independence. A precise and categorical attitude is imposed upon us in the present circumstances, since neutrality could by no means sustain Turkey in the disastrous consequences of a European war, which would fatally risk the very existence of the Ottoman Empire.

"A German victory would realize at a blow the ardent dream of the Pan-Germanists, which is the seizure of Asia Minor, while the only powers whose capital interest demands the upholding of Turkey are found on the side of the Triple Entente. Consequently, if Turkey, in accord with the cabinets of Athens, Belgrade, and Bucharest, came out immediately and openly on the side of the Triple Entente, she would guarantee her own existence and prove to the entire world that our country, so often discredited, nevertheless possesses *clairvoyance* and a sentiment of lofty political probity.

"The government of His Majesty, in which your Excellency plays such an active rôle, has to-day a unique opportunity to cast into oblivion the errors of our past and to conquer for our beloved country all the sympathies and esteem of the truly civilized world.

"[SIGNED] SABAHEDDINE.

"Paris, August 1, 1914."

## II.

"TO HIS EXCELLENCY TALAAT BEY, MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR, CONSTANTINOPLE:

"The exceptional gravity of the situation places me under the obligation of addressing to Your Excellency a second appeal.

"The violation of our neutrality in favor of Germany exposes us to the worst catastrophes. Our national interest more than ever commands us to make common cause with the powers of the Triple Entente and to come to an immediate understanding with Greece and Rumania. The question of the Isles, which up to the present had disturbed our relations with Greece, has lost all importance in the face of the grave events which are hazarding the very existence of our empire.

"If Turkey, with clear intuition of her interests

and her superior duty should swiftly succeed in forming this *entente*, all the Balkan forces would join themselves automatically to those of the Triple Entente, and our country would help not only to facilitate the establishment of a durable peace, but to save her own independence. I must urge you also to be on your guard against false news of victories emanating from Berlin. The advantage remains, and will remain, according to all probability, with noble France and her worthy allies.

"I sincerely hope, in the supreme interest of our country, that Your Excellency will succeed in impressing this truth upon the Ottoman Government.

"[SIGNED] SABAHEDDINE.

"Paris, August 15, 1914."

## III.

"TO HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY, SULTAN MOHAMED V. (In the care of His Excellency Rifat Pasha, Ambassador of Turkey, Rome.)

"In drawing the sword for Germany your Government condemns our country to death.

"Your Majesty cannot, however, be ignorant that the conscience of all your loyal subjects is in revolt against this monstrosity, for the Turkish people is entirely with the Allies, and if its revolt has not succeeded in becoming manifest in time it is because it has been constantly stifled by the condemnations and executions of military tribunals.

"Neither can Your Majesty be ignorant that the historic friendship which attaches us to France and to England forbids us to consider their Russian ally as our adversary. Thus, far from provoking them by the absurd hospitality which we are according to the ships of Germany, we ought to direct all our forces against the latter.

"Finding that my incessant appeals to your ministers are in vain, I demand of Your Majesty a last time that you make a supreme effort to attempt to arrest a war declared in opposition to the interests and the will of the nation.

"[SIGNED] SABAHEDDINE.

"Paris, November 6, 1914."

We give these dispatches in full because present events seem to bear out their predictions; and, moreover, it seems probable that Prince Sabaheddine presents not merely his personal views, but those of a definite party in Turkey. He continues his letter to M. Finot with a criticism of those in power by whose advice "the act of madness was consummated," and closes with the following words:

"As for Turkey, she ought to be saved in order that a stable equilibrium in the Orient may be assured, an equilibrium which is the cornerstone of that 'Europe of to-morrow' which the Occident is endeavoring to create at the price of so much blood!

"Very happy to be able to risk our life once more, we are quitting Paris to face the perils of the present hour. We are encouraged by the hope that in turning Turkey aside from her fatal path, we may assist, not only in the salvation of our people, but also in serving modestly the cause of the Allies, which is that of honor and of justice.

"Recevez, etc.

"[SIGNED] SABAHEDDINE."

## CHILDREN AND THE WAR

AMERICAN peace-loving mothers complain of the bellicose spirit that has taken possession of their children since the breaking out of the war. There is sufficient evidence of a convincing nature now at hand to prove that this complaint is fully justified and that the evil is not confined to individual cases, but is pretty generally distributed. It manifests itself not only in children's conversations, but in that infallible barometer of young interests, their games and play. In an article in the Sunday edition of the *New York Times* Mrs. Elsie Clews Parsons offers interesting statistics of the increase in the sale of toy soldiers and other materials for war games. The German lead soldier is now superseded by the steel soldier manufactured at home. This soldier is a neutral monstrosity, with Hungarian trousers, English coat, and German helmet. He possesses the advantage not only of being more durable but also cheaper, to meet the large popular demand. A set of the home product of infantry and cavalry costs twenty cents, as against one dollar which used to be paid for the German make. The business in wooden and paper soldiers has also received a tremendous boom. In one factory the writer found that it had increased from the rate of three million a year before the war to five million since. The sales of the toy shotguns have also increased, Mrs. Parsons writes.

In one firm the employees have been increased from sixty to 180, and they work in day and night shifts. This firm made not only guns but war games. Their history is interesting because it is so recent. They are an adaptation of the peaceful map game made by the firm before the war, a game of the shortest routes for parcel posts or a game to be won by locating the capitals of the States or by naming rivers and harbors. To-day a boy will learn geography, not in puzzling out the quickest means of transport or communication, but in planning how to outwit the enemy and capture his forts and his men. Similar map war games are sold by several firms, and by the thousands.

Although war games were in the market before the European war, since the war their sale has greatly increased. This increase impresses me as one of the most important effects in this country of the European war. It is by the most militaristic of European countries that the toy soldier has been produced, and I can reflect upon the consequences in general of war toys and games.

Distance lends enchantment. In another neutral country, Switzerland, in the immediate vicinity of the war, where its effects are felt much more keenly, it has lost all its

glamour for the children after the first burst of enthusiasm. A Zurich public-school teacher writes in the *Berner Tagwacht*:

When, in the beginning of August, the whole civilized world was terrorized by the unutterable catastrophe, when our army mobilized, and the cities and villages were full of soldiers, our children were all joy and enthusiasm. In their play they imitated the military activities. They fought battles in such an intense and realistic fashion that the authorities were compelled to interfere. Their compositions bear evidence of the way in which the war dominated all their thoughts and actions, and how the events of the times reflected themselves in the children's souls. In almost everything they wrote they told of their war games, building of forts, defense, attack, capture and construction of trenches, setting up of machine guns, field kitchens, transportation of the wounded, medical service, etc.

It is interesting to note what a complete change has taken place in the spiritual mood of our children. The prevailing unemployment, the distress of many families, all the misery produced by the war even in the neutral countries, have brought about this striking transformation in the attitude of the children toward war. I was best enabled to judge of this by the letters that my eleven-year-old children wrote to Santa Claus. They were free to say what they pleased. To stimulate them I merely read the following touching little note written by a pupil in the primary grade: "Dear Santa Claus: I want mother to be able to work a lot for Christmas. She can't work very much now any more. I would be so very happy if she could. Many regards to you. Joe."

All the letters were very serious, the cheerful tone of the merry Christmas season being almost entirely absent. Only one pupil, the son of well-to-do parents, wished for the usual things, candy, toys, etc. The rest either did not mention them at all or only by the way. In some the note of altruism is strong. Their own suffering has made them sensitive to the suffering of others. "Dear Santa Claus," one pupil writes, "bring clothes to the poor so that they should not freeze, and food to eat so that they should not starve. I wish the soldiers could return to their mothers, for many of them would be glad to lie in a soft bed once more." Another writes:

The first wish you could grant me, dear Santa Claus, is to help the poor children, who are alone and helpless in the world without parents. Give them their fathers who are fighting on the battlefields, or their mothers who are prisoners in France or England. Help the fugitives from Belgium who are in Switzerland and must beg and look for their bread at strangers' doors. And help our parents and other children's parents, so that they may always have work. And do not



forget the children whose fathers have been killed or imprisoned. Present me with a pair of snowshoes. Give my sister a new coat and a sleigh.

Others dwell on the employment of their parents and relatives. "Dear Santa Claus," one child writes, "please bring me a Christmas tree. But if you cannot, I would be satisfied if my father and mother could find work." Another child says: "You know that mamma must leave her work for December and January because others who have no work now must be given a chance to earn something, too. You know papa hasn't had work for a long time, so that what I wish is that both of them should get work after Christmas."

Many of the children show not only a sense of their suffering, but, correctly attributing it to the war, have turned pacifists, and wish its speedy ending. "I hope the war will soon be over," writes one. "There is no work now, and people cannot buy so

much as before, because the times are very hard." "I wish this human slaughter would end," another writes bluntly; and a third expresses the same wish more elaborately and appealingly.

DEAR SANTA CLAUS: Do please put an end to this terrible war. Don't you see how many men who want to be loyal to their fatherland are being killed? Thousands are dropping like grass mowed down by the scythe. Keep the war at least from our beautiful little Switzerland. My greatest wish is that this horrible war should end quickly. My father doesn't get his full wages. They have reduced the pay of conductors and teamsters. The only wish I have is that the war should be over as soon as possible.

Only one youngster, evidently an irrepressible humorist, introduced a gleam of fun into the prevailing gloom. "Let it snow potatoes this year, O dear Santa Claus. They come so high in these times of war. We shall have to go hungry if you don't do what I ask you. Please grant my wish."

## INTERNATIONAL WORK FOR PRISONERS OF WAR

OF all the neutral countries Switzerland seems to have been the most successful in maintaining a constantly impartial attitude toward the great belligerent powers, and at the same time in avoiding action calculated to offend them. Of course the fact that she is spared the unavoidable friction due to interference with maritime commerce has been a determining factor in this direction.

That Geneva, the birthplace of the Red Cross Association, should be to-day a great center of activity for that organization is but natural, and an article by Signora Gabriella Incontri, in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), relates the comprehensive work now being done in that city in relation to the prisoners of war in various belligerent countries. This has taken the form of an International Agency devoted to securing information regarding the whereabouts and condition of these prisoners and to transmitting to them messages and material aid from their relatives or others interested in their welfare.

To carry out this work effectively material has been collected for two very extensive sets of cards, each set arranged in alphabetical order. The first series gives the names and military standing of the individual prisoners as transmitted to the central bureau by the local authorities of the various prison

camp; the second series of cards lists the names of those concerning whom information is sought and such particulars as may have been furnished to aid in their identification. The time-saving accomplished by this great task is easily apparent, for in this way it is possible to refer immediately from any given card of inquiry to the corresponding card of information, when such a card has been received; in all cases the queries must be confined to the fate of those reported missing by the respective military authorities. The desired information, if available, is then conveyed without delay to the anxious inquirer. Of the scope of the work Signora Incontri says:

The agency is divided into three sections, one for French prisoners, another for German prisoners, and the third for English and Belgian prisoners. From fifteen to twenty thousand letters and postal cards are received and sent out daily, and the 1200 volunteers and paid employees (including sixty typists out of work) have all they can do to dispose of this immense correspondence. With the prolongation of the war the labor and expense incident to this task will continually augment; the present cost of about \$4000 monthly is provided for by the various Red Cross societies, by private offerings, and by contributions from those directly interested. Moreover, the number of volunteer workers is constantly on the increase, many who are occupied in the daytime giving several hours of night work gratuitously to the good cause.



VIEW IN THE HARBOR OF ANTWERP

## THE GERMANS IN ANTWERP

**N**OTHING makes us realize more keenly the monstrous perversion of human genius and power represented by a modern war than the spectacle of the beneficent miracles occasionally wrought by those same forces whose normal task is destruction. A bridge, a railway, or what-not, demolished to-day, is recreated to-morrow. A city is thrown into utter panic and demoralization, and presently, as if by magic, becomes, under military administration, a more orderly, if not a happier, community than it ever was in time of peace.

Dreams of what the splendid complex of human machinery which constitutes a modern army *might* accomplish, if a utopian organization of society would let it, must enter the mind of whoever reads the story of "The Death and Resurrection of the Port of Antwerp," as told by Captain Walter Bloem in *Die Woche* (Berlin).

How the Belgian court and government took refuge in the supposedly impregnable city; how the British naval brigade came to the aid of the beleaguered garrison; how the city endured a double bombardment from siege-guns on land and Zeppelins overhead; and how, early last October, the town was hastily abandoned, not only by its defenders,

but also by most of its civil population—all this is familiar history.

When the Germans entered

The city was deserted. Hungry dogs and cats ran wild in the streets. All the German shops, especially in the harbor district, had been wrecked and looted. Immediately on the heels of the victorious troops came the German civil administration, and took up its duties in the abandoned public offices. The harbor presented a scene of fearful havoc. The twenty-nine large ocean steamers which lay in the docks had suffered as much damage as the senseless vandalism of the English could inflict upon them. Their boilers had, indeed, withstood the attempts made to wreck them, but the cylinders of the engines had been blown up with dynamite cartridges, the vessels had been completely stripped, the saloons and staterooms plundered, the interiors hacked to pieces, the wireless apparatus ruined, and the lifeboats broken to bits. The locks which form the means of communication between the Scheldt and the harbor basins had been blocked with lighters, scuttled and sunk with their cargoes one on top of another, so that traffic between harbor and river was completely tied up. The electrical machinery which operated the locks had been destroyed. Twelve hundred automobiles, which were on the wharves and in neighboring garages, had been completely demolished.

The great oil-tanks were in flames when the Germans entered the city and were about



two-thirds destroyed. The waterworks had been put out of commission—not, however, by the Belgians or English, but in consequence of the reservoirs at Waelhem having been hit by bombs from a Zeppelin. Lastly, the steamship *Gneisenau*, of the North German Lloyd, had been sunk in the Scheldt in a cross-channel position in order to block the river, but had subsequently swung around with the current, leaving a passage on either side.

In this shocking state of ruin and obstruction the port was taken over by the German authorities. The clear-sighted organizing and reconstructive forces of our government at once set to work. . . . The first task to be undertaken was the removal of obstructions to navigation in the harbor. The cargoes of the sunken lighters, consisting chiefly of coal, grain, ore, and cement, were removed. Next it was necessary to raise the vessels themselves. The latter work was divided between a German firm and the Antwerp municipality, which engaged the services of a Belgian contractor. This undertaking alone entailed a heavy outlay of money. The clearing of the Royer lock cost 90,000 marks [\$22,500]. By order of the governor this expense was borne by the municipality, as the harbor works belong to the city. The municipal authorities were entirely reasonable in carrying out the plans of the German administration.

Next the river was cleared of the wreckage resulting from the blowing up of the pontoon bridge over which the Belgians and English had retreated. The raising of the *Gneisenau*, which in normal times would be a profitable operation, as the hull is worth half a million dollars, has not been practicable, because to bring the necessary tackle from Germany by sea would involve a violation of neutral waters, and to transport it overland would be too costly. Hence this unsightly wreck still lies in the middle of the Scheldt. A ferry between Antwerp and the opposite shore was promptly put in operation, and was soon busily employed, not only in transporting troops and war materials, but especially in bringing over thousands of returning Belgian refugees. As this service proved inadequate, a force of pioneers belonging to the Bavarian landsturm built a broad pontoon bridge; an undertaking of peculiar difficulty on account of the sixteen-foot tide to which this narrow river is subject.

A large corps of port inspectors and watchmen was organized, and measures were taken to check the thieving which even in normal times is the pest of this port, and in the early days of the German occupation had grown to huge proportions. An enormous

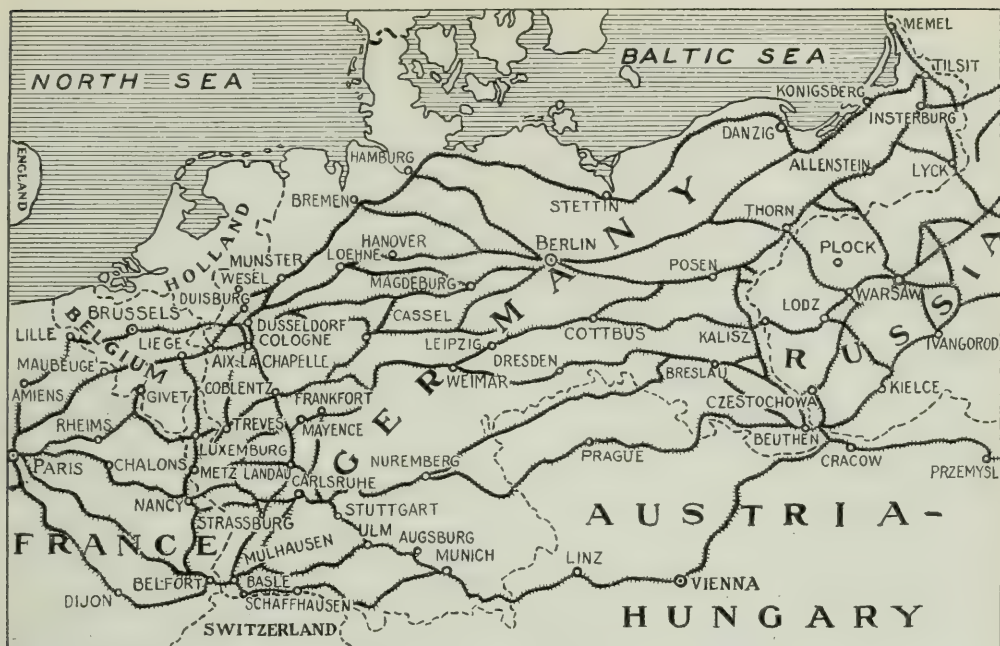
amount of merchandise of every kind was found on the ships and wharves and on board some 1200 lighters, with a total capacity of 300,000 tons. The ships, found scattered through the great harbor, were collected into a few of the inner basins, in order that they might be securely guarded. The coal was unloaded from the disabled ocean steamers, in order to obviate the risk of bunker-fires. A commission was appointed to make a survey of all the ships in port and report the extent of the damages they had received.

Thus order and security were gradually reestablished, and the next task was, as Captain Bloem puts it, "to restore the dead to life." Under the fostering care of the new government regular traffic with Germany and Holland was revived, though confined to rivers and canals. The sea-borne traffic, which normally constitutes the mainstay of the port, remains at a standstill. Nevertheless, the harbor has resumed something like its former activity, for it is the distributing-point from which all Belgium is provisioned. The provisions imported for this purpose by the Spanish-American relief commission are disembarked at Rotterdam, whence they are carried to Antwerp by way of canals or on the Scheldt. From Antwerp they are transported to the interior, again by canals. The intricate network of these inland waterways, which spreads over the whole of Belgium, has been rapidly restored to its normal condition, after having been extensively blocked and damaged by the Belgians.

From October 30 to January 4, inclusive, vessels arriving at the port numbered 947, with 147,000 tons of cargo, while the departing vessels numbered 779, with 165,000 tons. From January 5 to February 15, inclusive, the arrivals numbered 982 vessels with 182,000 tons, and the departures 936, with 202,000 tons. The railroad traffic at this important terminus has also been restored to great activity, particularly in the direction of Germany.

Captain Bloem sums up the results of the German occupation of Antwerp since its capture in the following words:

Thus by a quarter of a year of hard work the German administration has accomplished this result: The harbor, throughout its entire extent, has been completely restored to its former condition, and made ready to resume its activities at any moment on their former scale. When it is remembered that our enemies, before the fall of Antwerp, did everything in their power to bring the life of the harbor permanently to a standstill, we may well describe this result as a gigantic achievement of Germany's reconstructive powers.



THE EAST-AND-WEST LINES AND THE NUMEROUS ROUTES OPEN TO THE TRANSPORT OF TROOPS BETWEEN THE RUSSIAN AND FRENCH FRONTIERS OF GERMANY

## GERMANY'S STRATEGIC RAILWAYS

A FRENCH writer, Victor Cambon, expresses in *La Nature* his astonishment at the ease with which the Germans transport, in a few days, the large masses of their armies between the east and west frontiers of the empire. M. Cambon recently interviewed some prisoners in Morocco who had fought in Belgium during August, had been sent from there to eastern Prussia against the Russians, and were then returned and captured about the middle of September in the battle of the Aisne. Such mobility would have been impossible except for the number and careful organization of the German railways. Without railways, declares M. Cambon, the forces of Germany against the Allies would have been overcome in a few weeks.

The railway system of Germany extends about 60,000 kilometers (37,000 miles) in length, and covers an area of about 540,000 square kilometers; it is more extensive than the French system, but, considering the difference in population of the two countries, the number of kilometers per inhabitant is about equal. In Germany, however, the double track lines are much more numerous than in France, some lines indeed having four parallel tracks. The chief difference

between the two countries is especially noticeable in the extraordinary development that the Germans have given to their connecting and crossing railways, to stations, and to loading platforms. A knowledge of military science is not necessary to realize the importance of these points and their value in military transport.

Nearly every line has through express service. Punctuality of departure and arrival is, so to speak, mathematical. There is no doubt that this customary order and precision have operated most favorably in the celerity of military transport.

A glance at the map of the railway system indicates that the most numerous and most important lines are those that traverse the country from east to west. Fourteen lines of track cross the Rhine between Basle, on the frontier in Switzerland, and Wesel, near the frontier of Holland. But, on the other hand, on either bank of the Rhine two parallel roads follow its course faithfully, north and south, comprising a system of communication perpendicular to the fourteen lines that cross it.

By virtue of these two latter lines the Germans are able to throw at almost any point on the left bank the troops brought in



from the east by any one of the fourteen main arteries. These lines are, without doubt, of greatest importance. Other lines that stop at the right bank, coming from the mountains of the Black Forest or the Taunus, are of secondary importance; nevertheless, they constitute an added number of lines of communication.

Beginning at the south there are:

First: the Baden line between Mulhouse, Basle, Lindau, and Munich.

Second: the Great International Line, from Paris to Vienna, via Strasburg, Carlsruhe, Stuttgart, Augsburg, and Munich.

Third: the line between Metz, Saarbruck, Landau, Bruchsal, Heilbrunn, and Nuremberg.

Fourth: a line of first importance from Metz to Frankfurt, via Bingerbrück and Mayence. A system of complicated lines, with Frankfurt at the center, branches out in all directions.

Fifth: from a military point of view the most important line of all; constructed since the war of 1870, it joins Metz directly to Berlin, by way of the winding valley of the Moselle, passing through Trèves, Coblenz, Cassel, and Magdeburg. The Germans call this line by the name "Canonstrasse." It joins the network of lines that the German military staff has built about Metz in the last few years, and it is the last in the series of communications by which Germany is able to penetrate France without traversing Luxemburg or Belgium.

Sixth: at Cologne to the north, where the Rhine is crossed by a four-track bridge, is the main route from Paris to Berlin via St. Quentin, Maubeuge, Namur, Liège, Verviers, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Cologne,—the route of the 1914 invasion.

Seventh and eighth: from Aix-la-Chapelle a line branching toward Dusseldorf and another toward Duisburg.

Ninth: a final passage over the Rhine at Wesel

leads the Germans not only to Belgium but also to Holland.

By the complicated Rhine-Westphalian system one may reach by parallel or diverging routes the large centers of Bremen, Hamburg, Hanover, Magdeburg, Leipsic, Dresden, and Berlin.

As to the routes that the Germans may take for transporting their troops brought from the west to the far-reaching Russian frontier, M. Cambon says:

If we suppose the military trains to be taken from the heart of Germany by way of the foregoing lines we see that these armies are able to travel to the eastern frontier by way of Cologne, Bremen, Hamburg, Stettin, and Bromberg; to the Vistula base by way of Berlin, Posen, and Thorn; or to Cracow by way of Leipsic, Torgau, Breslau, Beuthen, or by way of Dresden and Prague, or finally by way of Munich, Linz, and Vienna.

The traveling distance between Belgium and these various points varies from 1200 to 1400 kilometers. Thirty-six hours is sufficient for the journey. The main questions, however, are arrangements for embarking platforms sufficiently large and handling equipment sufficiently powerful to avoid obstruction and delay, and at the same time, rolling stock with an enormous capacity. On these points the Germans have been prodigal in their efforts. Their embarking platforms astonish one by their immensity and the perfection of their management. In the year 1912 Prussia alone spent 480,000,000 marks toward increasing the rolling stock of its railways. It is not improbable that the general staff has been able to run over the various lines a train of fifty cars every ten minutes, 6000 cars every twenty-four hours; this would represent an army of 100,000 men transported in two days from one end of Germany to the other.

## WAR'S DESTRUCTION OF FRENCH FORESTS

UNTIL recently it had not been generally known that the Germans had been cutting the French forests in their possession and shipping the timber back to Germany. This fact, with others, is mentioned by Jean-Paul Alaux, an eminent architect of Paris, who is now with the French army, in an article written for *American Forestry* (Washington, D. C.). This writer estimates that it will be thirty years before the damaged French forests become again a source of revenue.

M. Alaux summarizes the chief causes of the damage as follows:

I. Cuttings by the military authorities for strategic reasons and for permitting the more effective use of artillery.

II. Cuttings for the purpose of building trenches, shelters, and roads.

III. Cutting for firewood for the military kitchens and for fuel with which to warm the shelters.

IV. Cutting by the enemy and the taking away of timber as valuable booty.

Much of this injury was, of course, inflicted by the French authorities themselves owing to the necessity of clearing the ground in the vicinity of Paris at the time when the outer defenses of that city were menaced by the Germans. The forest of Montmorency, for example, suffered greatly by reason of the wholesale cuttings that were necessary in order to give full play to the artillery and remove all growths which might serve the enemy as masks and ambushes. On the other hand, the forests of Vincennes and



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**BUILDING A MILITARY "TREE ROAD," KNOWN USUALLY IN THE UNITED STATES AS "CORDUROY"**  
 (French engineers use three layers of trees topped by bark, branches, and soil. This road-building has resulted in great destruction of young growth)

Boulogne, which practically extend to the outer barriers of Paris at the east and south, have hardly been touched.

After the winter rains had made most of the roads in the wooded regions impassable, and the artillerymen were unable to move their guns or to transport ammunition, it was necessary to cut new roads in all directions through the forests, using the felled trees to make a roadbed somewhat after the manner of American "corduroy" once so familiar in this country. Sometimes three layers of trees are superposed in order to permit the passage of convoy wagons. Earth mixed with straw, bark, and twigs is strewn plentifully over these improvised roadways.

The forest of Vitrimont, behind Lunéville, has been completely razed. In the forest of Meaux, lanes from one hundred and fifty to three hundred feet in width have been cut at intervals of every thousand feet. This was, of course, for the purpose of allowing the artillery to shower its murderous fire over a wide area, as though through some gigantic loophole. One cannot find a remnant of copse or thickets; all the trees and saplings have disappeared throughout the razed area.

Near Neufchâteau, the fort of Boulémont had

been built upon land which had been donated for the purpose by the Count of Alsace. The magnificent forest in front of it was entirely felled.

In the forest of Champenoux, every tree was cut down, leaving the trunks standing to a height of about three feet. This was the method of cutting generally followed at the beginning, when strategic reasons demanded that an area be cleared. The standing trunks made it easy to construct the barbed-wire entanglements and barriers which prevented any raids by either cavalry or infantry. Recently, this method has ceased, by order of the Minister of War, as it was deemed useless and unnecessary, in view of the entrenched method of fighting which now prevails. But a considerable damage has already been done, and in order that the next growth may properly take place, it will be later necessary to again cut away these remnants of trunks.

In the plateau of Amance, before Nancy, the trees were all felled for strategic reasons. The woods of Crévie, between Dombasle and Arancourt, were destroyed by fire (August 22 and 23, 1914). I have not been able to learn whether the fire was due to the accidental spreading of the kitchen fires, a careless match, or to the explosion of an incendiary shell.

For several weeks I have been quartered in the vicinity of Arras. In the wood of La Haye, all of the trees and undergrowth have been cut practically throughout the whole area of the forest. It was done for the purpose of providing firewood for the kitchens and shelters. Daily, I have seen





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## GERMANS REMOVING TIMBER FROM FRENCH FORESTS

the men file away, axe and billhook in hand, to return later laden down with great bundles of wood, which they threw down beside their shelters, and which they would afterward split with wooden wedges.

In conclusion, M. Alaux states that thousands of acres will practically require reforestation, and that trees mutilated by shell fire will have to be cut down and replaced.

## MEDIEVAL ARCHITECTURE AT YPRES

SINCE the bombardment and partial destruction of Ypres were regarded as legitimate acts of war the world has been more resigned to the resulting architectural loss than in the case of Louvain. But architects tell us that of all the Gothic buildings of Europe no group, except possibly that of Westminster, could compare with the one that formed the largest market square in Belgium, although it was less visited than the neighboring towns of Bruges and Ghent. In this group at Ypres there were only two great buildings,—the Cloth Hall and the Church of St. Martin, but the lesser buildings, although differing greatly from the others, were in perfect architectural harmony.

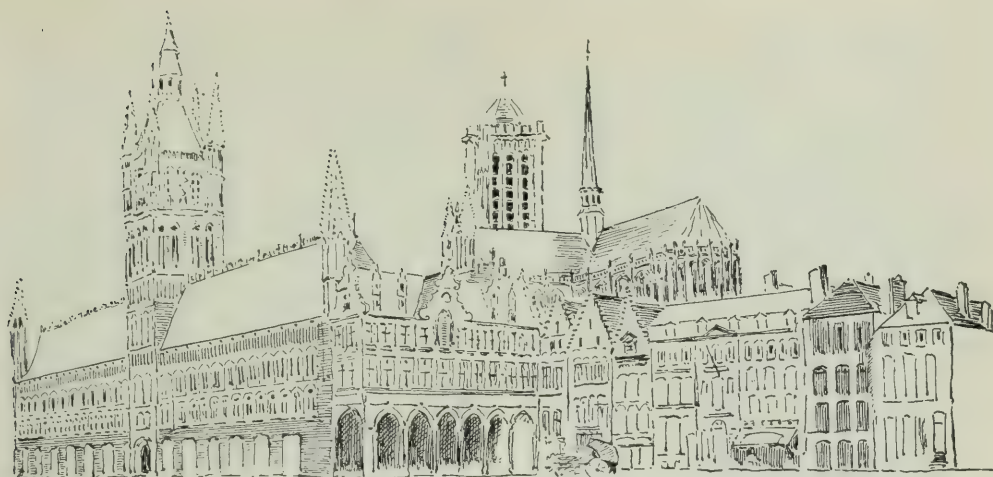
Writing in the *Architectural Record* (New York) for April, Mr. C. A. T. Middleton describes and illustrates these buildings as they were before the war,—as he himself had known them for a period of twenty years without material change until the time of their bombardment. The great Church of St. Martin, which Mr. Middleton characterizes as the most beautiful church in Belgium, and the even greater Cloth Hall, unparalleled among secular buildings of the Gothic era, were erected in the thirteenth

century. Mr. Middleton's description of Cloth Hall brings out some remarkable features of this ancient structure:

The Cloth Hall was commenced in the year 1200, when Baldwin of Constantinople was Count of Flanders, the first portion to be taken in hand being the central tower, or belfry, and the eastern wing, extending from it to the Grande Place. This was finished in 1230 and the work was not resumed till 1285, when the similar western wing was added, then turned northwards and then eastwards again, all in accordance with the original design and forming the letter J on plan, the whole being brought to conclusion in 1304, rather more than a hundred years from the start. For simplicity and directness of design no medieval building could compare with it, perfect in balance, well proportioned, admirably held together, and beautifully detailed. On the ground floor an arched passageway passed through the central tower, while a large covered market extended along either wing, reached by numerous square-headed doors directly from the road and lighted by small traceried windows over them,—the square tower openings going far to give an appearance of substantial strength to the whole building.

This market, with its curious groined vaulting of small bricks, supported by a row of octagonal pillars down the center, was unique.

The arcades on the upper floor, while appearing superficially to consist of a range of similar and evenly spaced windows, were alternately of glazed and of blind tracery, the "lights" in the blind arches being filled with statuary of high



Cloth Hall

Hotel de Ville

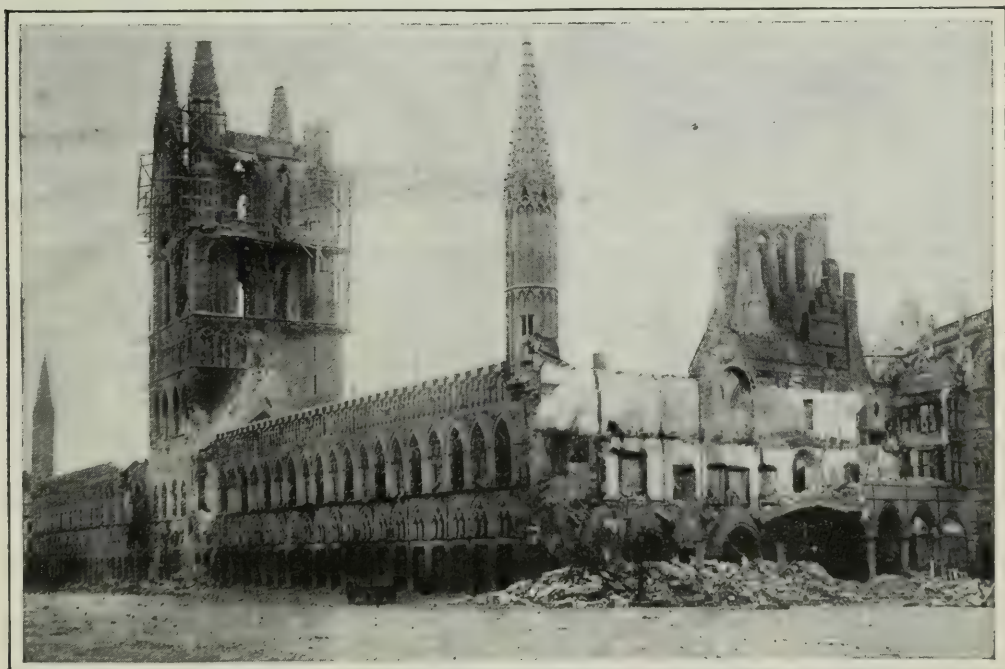
St. Martin

GROUP OF GOTHIC BUILDINGS ON THE GRANDE PLACE, YPRES, BELGIUM, PARTLY DESTROYED DURING THE PRESENT WAR

order; and a crenellated parapet fringed the eaves, breaking the harshness of the horizontal line without destroying its character.

Internally, the whole of the upper floor forms one huge room which, in addition to two returns, was no less than 433 feet long, though only 38 feet wide; redeemed from being too greatly extended in appearance by the rising of the tower arches across the center, and by the grand open timber roof, in construction not entirely unlike that of the monastery, already described. It was, however, both richer and larger, as will be seen by the sketch section, while it possessed a most

exceptional feature in the form of a trussed support to the ridge, like a double trellis girder in timber, which extended the whole length of the building, binding it longitudinally though greatly adding to the weight. The scantlings of the oak tie-beams, 18 in. x 15 in., with a span of nearly 38 feet, will be noticed; and so will the fourteenth-century character of the moldings wrought upon them at their junction with the brackets, though the Renaissance carving at the foot of some of the wall pieces, bearing date of the period of the Spanish occupation of the country, may indicate that repairs were undertaken then or possibly



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CLOTH HALL AND HOTEL DE VILLE, YPRES, AFTER BOMBARDMENT



more likely that a carver at that time set himself to enrich the older work.

It is a wonderful indication of the trade of Ypres that such an enormous room should have been needed for the annual cloth fair in the early part of the fourteenth century.

The Hotel de Ville (locally known as the Nieuwercke), which contained the municipal offices, stood at the east end of the Cloth Hall facing the Grande Place. It was built about 1620, supposedly from plans made in 1575 by John Sporeman, an architect of Ghent. It was in the style of the Spanish Renaissance. It is Mr. Middleton's opinion that much of the other building in Ypres was done at about that date.

The city has had a troublous history. In 1383 it was besieged by English troops acting in concert with the men of Ghent. After the decline of the cloth trade it ceased to be the commercial metropolis of Flanders, although it still remained a place of consequence. During the Spanish occupation it was three times sacked and reduced to a community of 5000 people. Then for two centuries it figured as the scene of sieges, bombardments, and captures, followed invariably by pillage and ruinous taxation. The latest devastation of the old town is described as more complete than any in its history, except that it has not actually been occupied by the forces of the enemy.

## FINLAND: THE RUSSIAN PROGRAM AND THE WORKING OF WOMAN SUFFRAGE

THE probable status of the various dependent nationalities of Europe after the close of the present war has been the subject of considerable discussion of late. Finland, a country seldom heard from by way of a special representative, has had as an advocate in this country during the past winter Madame Aino Malmberg, one of Finland's foremost women,—novelist, political agitator, and promoter of the Finnish movement to regain independent national existence. Her labors in this direction have brought about her banishment; she has been compelled to sign a promise to leave Finland and never enter the country again.

Finland,—in Finnish, "Suomi," the land of a thousand lakes,—has an area of 144,000 square miles, equal to England, Scotland, Ireland, Belgium, and Holland. Sixty per cent. of its area is in woodland and hills; only 8 per cent. is under cultivation. The soil is gravel, clay, and sand,—the washings of the glaciers that formed the curious hills that sweep in dune-like ranges over the country. It is fertile, however, and excellent crops of hay, rye, potatoes, peas, and barley are raised by the peasant farmers.

The Finnish race is divided into two branches, the Carelians, who inhabit the northeast, and are of lively temperament; and the Tavastes, who occupy the southwestern portion of the Duchy, and who manifest the Finnish traits to which we of the West are most accustomed,—seriousness, diffidence, and taciturnity. The Finns are fond of

music and poetry, and some of the most noble epic poetry in the world is found in their large national collection called "*Kalevala*."

Helsingfors, the capital of Finland, has a population of 75,000, and here are situated the Government Offices, the University, the Polytechnic Institute, and the various Literary Societies. Finland's educational system has always been a source of national pride; and among its practical schools, the Duchy has two agricultural institutes, nineteen dairy schools, one forest institute, seven commercial schools, five industrial and twenty-seven trade schools.

The history of Finland's struggles to preserve her nationality forms one of the most stirring romances in history. Madame Malmberg writes that if the new program issued by the Russian Government and already signed by the Czar,—at the end of November,—comes into effect, it means the end of Finland as a nationality. In its place there will be only a Russian province where the happy dreams of a growing and developing nation will soon be crushed.

Madame Malmberg outlines the program in order to show how it must necessarily make an end to the national development of the Finnish race:

(1) The state of "Exceptional Law" as applied in Russia can be extended to Finland. This clause practically abolishes all law in Finland.

(2) Russian laws concerning the press, the right to form unions, associations, and public meetings, are to be extended to Finland.

(3) All Finnish civil servants are to be brought under the authority of the Russian law courts and under the disciplinary power of the imperial authorities.

(4) The power of the Governor-General, the Procurator-General, and the Corps of Gen d'Armes will be strengthened in Finland.

(5) The University of Finland, the Imperial Alexander University of Helsingfors, and all the educational establishments of Finland to be placed under the control of the Russian Minister of Education.

(6) The Russian language to be compulsory for all students wishing to enter the University.

(7) The Finnish customs to be assimilated to the Russian customs, so as to secure for Russian merchandise a privileged position in the Finnish markets.

(8) Privileges to be granted to Russian banks and Russian limited liability companies for opening branches and carrying on operations in Finland.

(9) The Finnish monetary, postal, telegraph, and railway systems will be assimilated to those of Russia.

In explanation of the fact that no mention is made in this program of the Finnish Diet,—a single chamber of 200 members,—Madame Malmberg writes:

People have remarked that nothing has been said in this program about the Finnish Diet. This is not necessary; the Diet can be abolished by simply not allowing it to assemble—exactly what has happened now. According to Finnish law, the Grand Duke—the Czar of Russia—was to summon the Diet to assemble on the first of February this year, but that has not been done. The Diet has been *indefinitely postponed*.

#### THE ENTRANCE OF WOMEN INTO FINNISH POLITICS

Madame Malmberg considers it interesting to remember how the Finnish women got the vote, and after they had secured the vote in an almost miraculous way, that not a single man said a word against it.

Previous to 1906 we had anti-suffragists in Finland just as we have them in other countries of Europe. They used the same ingenious arguments then that they are using now. One heard all about the devastated homes, the neglected babies, etc. Finland happens to be the poorest country in Europe, and therefore independent of all theorists. The anti-suffragists as well as the suffragists have always had to work hard just to keep life going. Consequently women have always occupied important positions in national life, though they were deprived of political rights. It always takes an unthinking masculine mind a long time to understand that rights and responsibilities always belong together. The Finns had to learn it—and the lesson was hard.

Finland—since 1809—was an autonomous country where the Grand Duke, who at the same time was the Czar of Russia, was supposed to be the constitutional ruler. From 1809 to 1899, the Finns were left in peace, and as they were passionately patriotic they had arisen to be one of the most



MME. AINO MALMBERG

civilized nations of Europe. In the year 1899 the Russification of Finland began; methods were used that were intolerant and unknown to civilized Europe. The press was suppressed, meetings were forbidden, peaceful citizens thrown into prison or exiled to Siberia. The struggle of the Finns for national existence against overwhelming odds became so intense that every year meant more than ten usual years to the people; it became almost an individual fight for every member of the nation. No man could stand outside the conflict—neither men nor women.

During that time it seemed to dawn upon the dullest minds that, after all, women had to do their share of the work, as well as men, if the nation was to be saved. It was therefore only natural that when the time came to reap the fruit of their labors the women should have their share.

That time came in a more dramatic way than anybody imagined; Russia had been defeated by Japan, and a strong movement for freedom was sweeping across the country from East to West. The Finns—mystics by nature—were in a state of strained nervous expectation. Suddenly a holy spirit seemed to descend upon the people and Finland had a glimpse of the millennium where there are no foes—only brothers and friends. All activity stopped for eight days; Finland went on a national strike—eight days of dreams and happiness when everyone was ready to give his life if it was needed. Every Finn knew that the great turning-point had come—when he should gain or lose all.

It was the turning-point; Finland got back the constitution it had lost and several new rights, among them general suffrage. Every man and woman of twenty-four has now the right to vote



and is eligible to the Diet. Nineteen women were elected to the first Diet. Now there are twenty-one women members of that body. There is one point on which the leading men of Finland agree; that it has been beneficial to the country to give

women the right of full citizenship, and that the homes and the babies are given even better care than before, as now the grave responsibility of the fate of Finland lies upon women as well as upon men.

## THE AVIATOR'S OPPORTUNITY IN THE ARCTIC

UNDER the heading "Who Will Rescue the Lost Explorers?" the *Scientific American* said editorially several weeks ago:

At this moment it is probable that three, and possible that eleven, of the men who constituted the Canadian Arctic Expedition of 1913 are spending the sunless days of the polar winter under conditions of peculiar hardship, hoping against hope that the still distant summer will bring them salvation. Up to the present time it is doubtful whether the rest of mankind will make any serious effort to realize this hope.

Of the explorers in question, eight were on board the *Karluk* when she was crushed in the ice some eighty miles northeast of Wrangel Island on January 21, 1914. These eight,—including two scientific men of international reputation, James Murray and Henri Beuchat,—became separated, near Herald Island, from the rest of their party, after the loss of the ship, and their fate is altogether problematical. That they have perished somewhere on the polar ice seems more likely than that a similar fate has overtaken the leader of the expedition, Stefánsson, and his companions, Storker Storkersen and Ole Anderson, who sledged away into the unknown at a somewhat later date and in a different part of the polar basin.

On April 7, 1914, a supporting party left Stefánsson with a sledge, six dogs, and a good supply of food and ammunition, at the edge of the Continental Shelf. He then hoped to return in a few weeks to Alaska or to gain the shores of Banks Land. It is nearly certain, however, that he was carried westward on the drifting ice, and, if he is still alive, he is now probably somewhere north of Siberia. He is an experienced and resourceful Arctic traveler, and was not at least in much danger of starvation, as game was abundant. It is an unprecedented situation in the history of polar exploration that no plans for seeking these lost explorers have, as yet, definitely materialized. The *Karluk* survivors on Wrangel Island were rescued last season by one of the three ships, all flying the American flag, which went in search of them. No relief expedition was sent out by the Canadian government. Neither is there any movement on foot in Canada to rescue Stefánsson and his two companions, or to undertake the admittedly less promising quest of the eight men last heard from near Herald Island.

If no expedition is sent in search of the missing men, it will not be the fault of Burt B. McConnell, Stefánsson's former secretary and meteorologist of his expedition, who has been unremitting in his efforts to arouse public interest in their behalf. In contributions to *Harper's Magazine* for February and April, McConnell describes the rescue of the *Karluk* survivors from Wrangel Island (an achievement in which he participated, and which was due above all to his initiative), and the movements of Stefánsson from the time he accidentally parted company with his ship in September, 1913, until he bade good-bye to the party, including McConnell, which accompanied him as far north as the edge of the Continental Shelf in April, 1914, as above related. In both these articles the writer outlines the plan which appears to him most feasible for seeking the lost men; viz., the use of hydroaeroplanes operating from a ship and gradually sweeping an area of the Arctic that is, at present, almost wholly unexplored. This plan has been heartily approved by the Aero Club of America.

In a letter published in *Flying* for April, McConnell points out the many interesting possibilities of such an undertaking, apart from the humane task of saving human life:

Opportunities for thrills would be numerous, for at no time in the Arctic can one foretell what will happen within the next few hours. Hunting and photographing polar bears, walrus, and other big game from the hydroaeroplane would be one of the attractions of the cruise, which might last until October, 1915, or 1916, as results might warrant. Then it is possible that we might discover the only remaining land mass of any considerable extent left [unexplored] in the world—the land which Stefánsson and his men sought—but the humane aspect of the search is the major one; in my opinion the world can ill afford to lose those men.

Perhaps other human beings than those of the Canadian expedition may be marooned in these unknown wastes, for "it is a matter of Arctic history that more than a hundred ships (and no one knows how many men) have been lost in the ice."



From the *American Museum Journal*, New York

#### RECENT MOVEMENTS OF THE CANADIAN ARCTIC EXPEDITION

- +3.** *Karluk* frozen solidly in the ice pack broke from what had been considered permanent winter quarters and drifted westward, September 23, 1913, leaving Stefánsson and hunting party stranded on shore.
- +4.** *Karluk* crushed in the ice pack in which it had been carried four months, and sank, January 10, 1914. Twelve survivors rescued from Wrangel Island, September 7, 1914.
- +Martin Point.** Stefánsson and two companions, March 22, 1914, started north over the sea ice for a thirty-day exploration journey into the unknown region, having heard nothing from the *Karluk* up to that time and having arranged for various activities of the southern party of the expedition in winter quarters at Collinson Point. Nothing has been heard from this exploration party to date, one year later in 1915.
- +1.** One of the small vessels of the expedition probably at this point in winter quarters, 1914-15. Proceeded under charge of Wilkins in the summer of 1914 to form base of supplies for Stefánsson should he be able to reach Banks Land instead of returning to the north coast of Canada or Alaska.
- +2.** Winter quarters 1914-15 of the southern land party under R. M. Anderson, having proceeded to this position with two small vessels of the expedition in the summer of 1914 for scientific study of the Eskimo there, of the copper deposits, etc.

Finally, in the current *American Museum Journal* McConnell again tells the story of his last adventures with Stefánsson, and presents the details of the proposed relief expedition, which we quote below:

The plans call for a small power schooner and two to four hydroaeroplanes with experienced aviators. We would have the machines assembled at Nome and tested before taking them

to Wrangel Island. Beginning there and using the ship as a base, we would undertake to search a strip of ice and water one hundred and seventy-five miles long by twenty miles wide daily by having one machine (or better two, one for the relief of the other, if needed) fly at a height of a thousand feet, carrying observers equipped with powerful glasses. The machine would proceed one hundred and seventy-five miles in a north-westerly direction, turn at right angles and fly for twenty miles, then turn again and fly back



to the ship parallel to its outgoing course. The ship in the meantime would have proceeded twenty miles to the east to meet the incoming machine, thus giving the change aviators and the mechanic an opportunity to prepare the second machine for the next day's flight.

Experienced aviators, such as make up the board of governors of the Aero Club of America,

and explorers, including Peary, have approved the plans, and all agree that the work ought to be done.

By such a plan a strip of the Arctic Ocean one hundred and seventy-five miles wide extending from Wrangel Island, Siberia, to Herschel Island, Canada, could be searched in the summer season of 1915 if ordinary weather conditions prevailed.

## THE FACTS ABOUT MARS

CONCERNING the endless subject of the Martian "canals" the public mind is in a perpetual quandary,—what with the sweeping skepticism of certain conservative astronomers on the one hand and the riotous imagination of Sunday-supplement vagarists on the other.

In the last number of *Popular Astronomy*, Prof. W. H. Pickering, who, next to Dr. Lowell, is our leading "Martian," presents abundant evidence as to the mere existence of numerous canal-like markings on Mars in the shape of several series of drawings made independently, and in each series simultaneously, at widely separated observatories at the time of the planet's last opposition. The drawings agree as to the salient features of Martian geography, though exhibiting remarkable differences in details. Dr. Lowell, as usual, saw a great many more canals than anybody else, but no less than twenty-four of these marks are found on all the drawings. Professor Pickering's text bristles with interesting and suggestive facts. To the layman one of the most striking of these relates to the shifting of a certain pair of canals, which "apparently traveled some 300 miles across country in about three weeks." Of this and similar cases previously recorded the writer remarks that "while perhaps favorable to the idea of intelligent direction on Mars, they do not strengthen the theory of irrigating ditches."

However, no astronomer is irrevocably committed to the belief that the "canals" really are canals.

In another article on this fascinating planet, published in the current number of *Knowledge*, Mr. J. E. Maxwell tells us that when he began his study of Mars he was "fearful of being led into a belief in conclusions influenced by their desirability," and that the objective existence of the canals seemed to him "too romantic to be true." He is now a convert, thanks mainly to Dr. Lowell.

We have heard the story of a lecture on

Mars which was interrupted by a man in the audience, who arose and declared: "You can't tell me anything about Mars; *I've been there.*" It may be said of Dr. Percival Lowell that he has more nearly realized the experience of a bodily visit to Mars than any other human being.

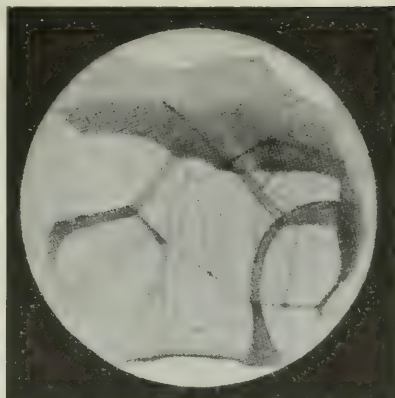
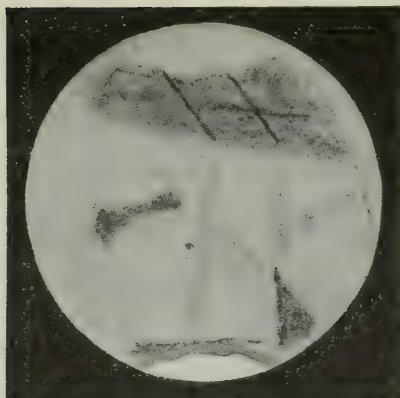
Lowell's observatory, at Flagstaff, Arizona, at an altitude of 7250 feet, enjoys the best atmospheric conditions known anywhere in the world for planetary observations. His principal instrument is a twenty-four-inch refractor,—a big telescope, but not so big as many elsewhere. However, for revealing fine details on the surface of a planet the largest telescopes are often less efficient than those of moderate size. The "aperture" that can be used to advantage is always limited by the state of the atmosphere. Even in the wonderfully clear air of Flagstaff "Lowell finds that, save on exceptionally fine nights, best results are obtained when he is not using his full aperture. He stops his aperture down to eighteen, and sometimes even to thirteen, inches, in accordance with the 'seeing'."

It has been said that Lowell, though he draws exceedingly fine details in the canal system, altogether omits faint objects of a comparatively coarse nature, which appear on the drawings of others who see no canals.

Mr. Maxwell suggests that this may be due in part to the fact that Lowell's attention has been concentrated for years upon the canals, and that he takes comparatively little interest in other features; but it may also be due to a peculiarity of vision in which extreme acuteness coexists with deficient sensitiveness to impression,—the former being physiological, the latter psychological. Such cases are known to oculists.

Misstatements have been current as to the distinctness with which these fine markings are seen through the telescope.

I have seen it stated that the "canals" are never seen steadily, but are merely glimpsed in flashes, generally lasting for about one quarter of a second.



DRAWINGS MADE INDEPENDENTLY BY TWO OBSERVERS (MESSRS. LOWELL AND SLIPHER) ON THE SAME NIGHT WITH THE SAME INSTRUMENT. THE ELONGATED NARROW DARK AREAS SHOWN IN THESE DRAWINGS ARE THE SO-CALLED CANALS

This is not true. Professor Lowell has assured me that at Flagstaff the larger "canals" are frequently held absolutely steadily. It was, said Lowell, not easy to say for how long the more difficult features in the "canal" system were seen, but they came out clear and sharp in moments of best seeing.

Mr. Maxwell is especially interested in the study of Mars as "our one chance of proving beyond dispute the plurality of inhabited worlds," and he sees in the results attained by Lowell "positive evidence of the present existence in another world, not of

life only, but of a high state of civilization and mental development."

There are some who, accepting Lowell's observations as accurate, endeavor to show that the "canals" might have originated in some natural manner. Space does not permit me to discuss these views. Suffice it to say that the absolute directness with which these objects run, according to Lowell's drawings, their obviously economic arrangement, the progressive changes which take place along an individual canal after the melting of one of the polar caps, and a thousand other details admit of absolutely no other explanation than that they are of artificial origin.

## AAGE MADELUNG, A NEW SCANDINAVIAN LITERARY STAR

WHEN, two years ago, the first volume of Aage Madelung's novels appeared, it was a revelation to the reading world. Who was this writer who departed so boldly from the beaten track and was creating an absolutely new "genre" in literature? Many before him had known how to express their love of nature, but this Dane was infusing into his works an entirely personal originality.

A thought of Lafcadio Hearn's appeared as an epigraph on the fly-leaf of his book. It reads:

One might say that the primitive love of nature develops in us a cosmic emotion that enables us to comprehend and enter into intimate relations with the infinite.

Madelung, says M. N. Valentin, writing in *La Revue* (Paris), is strongly possessed of this feeling. Full of sympathy for un-

fortunate humans, seeing in animals and things a soul that finds reflection in his own, he seems at one with every existing thing on earth.

Aage Madelung's ancestors were of old noble German blood, and owned a castle in Thuringia.

One of them emigrated to Norway a hundred years ago. His sons bought vast estates in Sweden and Denmark and through marriage created families in which the Scandinavian strain soon predominated. Madelung, born in Sweden, at Saederson, on his father's estate, is absolutely a western. Very tall and thin, with a reserved exterior that might be ascribed to shyness or pride, he soon conquers one by the depths of his gray eyes, tender and stern by turns. Is it not the very nature of the man that is reflected in his enigmatic gaze,—the look of the tireless huntsman who stalks his prey and having captured it, suffers over the hurt he has inflicted? In his volume "The Chase of Beast and Man" the author gives us an insight into this duality of his nature.



Having completed his studies in a college in Denmark, Aage Madelung was recalled to the paternal roof to help his father look after the paternal domains. He threw himself heart and soul into this life in the open and spent the superabundance of his youthful energy riding a wild stallion.

Shortly after the military service to which he was called made of him the handsomest of handsome dragoons imaginable. Filled with enthusiasm for a soldier's life, he dreamed of a military career. The strong opposition which he encountered in his father, who wanted him to remain a country gentleman, compelled him to leave home. One fine morning he fled to Russia, resolved to lead an independent life without the help of any of his people. Then began the life of a nomad,—which recalls that of Gorky,—an existence which permitted him to come in direct contact with nature and men.

He spent twelve years in the Slav countries. First, as a rural guard in one of the Polish provinces near the Galician frontiers, he led a life full of varied experience and adventure. At night he galloped through fields and forests in quest of strayed cattle. By day he hobnobbed with a bizarre population composed of smugglers, Jews, gypsies and pilgrims, come from Bessarabia.

Later we find him in St. Petersburg (Petrograd), where he nearly died of the cholera during the epidemic of 1894. After a short stay in Copenhagen, he returned to St. Petersburg and headed a large commercial enterprise for the exportation of butter. Unfortunately the revolution, which was stifled almost as soon as it was born, upset all his plans. It was a period of great unrest, of reprisal, of banishment. Many revolutionists found refuge under Madelung's roof, and it is this association and daily contact with the artists and writers who were his guests that aroused his interest and his taste for literature. While continuing to deal in butter, he became a collaborator of

one of the Russian reviews, which published several of his novels and essays upon Scandinavian subjects.

But in those troubled days nothing prospered, and Madelung left Russia carrying away with him the memory of all that he had seen and heard in the solitudes of the steppes, among the peasants he had seen and the Jewish families he had known. While these impressions were fresh and vivid he began to write with a realism ennobled by a poet's imagination. He was then nearly forty. Having begun his literary career so late he hesitated long before presenting his work to the public. He has a horror of "banality" and often shows strange pictures and uses strange phrases that are often the despair of the translator.

"To me," says Madelung, "phrases form complete pictures. I see before me a row of hieroglyphics whose shape is essential to my eyes. Besides, I write by ear, not by the rules of grammar."

The author is filled with the tragedy of life. His works are powerful and somber. A few titles will reveal this: "Pogrom," "Terror," "Twelve Hundred Men Frozen." . . . His stories of animals or poor, downtrodden human beings are penetrated with it. His great pity for all who suffer inspired Madelung to write a magnificent but harrowing novel entitled "Let Us Love One Another," in which he pictures the cruel conditions of the life of the Jews in Russia.

After having traveled all over Europe and spent some time in England, in Paris, in Germany, this cosmopolitan has settled in Switzerland. In a quiet retreat in a suburb of Zurich he continues to meditate and to work.

## STEFAN ZWEIG: AUSTRIAN POET, CRITIC, AND DRAMATIST

ONE of the most brilliant of the younger men of letters is Stefan Zweig, whose work has already begun to be favorably known in this country. Though still in his early thirties,—he was born in Vienna in 1881,—Mr. Zweig has already achieved an enviable reputation as a lyric poet of distinction, as an able essayist and literary critic, and as a successful dramatist and short-story writer.

The essential qualities of Mr. Zweig's mind and his attitude towards life and literature are optimism, enthusiasm, generosity of

appreciation, a tendency to hero-worship, and a frank and keen zest in living, accompanied by a desire to feel himself permeated by the spirit of his own time and to be able to give fitting and adequate expression to it. His style is rich and full, with a marked tendency towards the decorative. Obviously he is what Dr. Ostwald would class as a "romantic." Naturally enough, a talent so marked in its characteristics possesses the defects of its qualities. The decorative element in his style tends towards the too profusely ornate or rococo. His glowing appreciation of other

men's genius is apt to lack in discrimination.

Zweig's talents early found expression in the lyric and in translation. The latter art at once ministered to his need of hero-worship and gave him an incomparable command of language and facility in its use, a service it has so often performed for men of letters, as in the case of Lafcadio Hearn, for example. It was but a step from the interpretation of his hero's works to the writing of critical essays upon such congenial themes. His essays and monographs include studies of Dickens, Balzac, Baudelaire, Verlaine, Rimbaud, and Verhaeren. While all are sympathetic, it was in the last that he found his master. In Verhaeren his soul recognized a kindred spirit. His lengthy monograph upon the great Belgian writer established him as an authority. This work, which has very recently been translated into English, very promptly appeared in French and was more widely read and appreciated in France than in Germany or Austria.

Zweig's earliest book of lyrics, "Silver Strings," was published when he was a mere youth. Later appeared some remarkable short stories, notably "The Love of Erica Ewald," and the volume called "First Experience." The theme of the former is that of the woman, who, in the wild pain of a scorned love, seeks a mad revenge in the casting of herself away, but is saved from her folly at the critical moment. The tales in "First Experience" deal delicately and charmingly with the awakening of love in youths and maids.

But Zweig's greatest work, thus far, is accounted his remarkable drama "Thersites." A Vienna critic, Emil Lucka, writing in a recent number of *Das Literarische Echo* (Berlin), declares this to be one of the most beautiful poetic dramas to be found in modern German. He says:

Thersites represents the summit of all Zweig has thus far accomplished. It is a daring and successful attempt at expressing the tragedy of the pariah,—of him who is ugliest and most cowardly, and at whom all the well-advised may scoff. He is relentlessly driven into himself, and thus it comes that spiritual things are made clear to him that remain hidden from the others, the beautiful, the heroic, the reckless enjoyers of life. He who is thrust aside by all discovers the emotion of loneliness, discovers dangerous abysses of the soul. He alone, by reason of his own pain, can fathom alien souls.

The same number of *Das Literarische Echo* contains an article even more interesting in the form of an autobiographical sketch by Zweig himself. In spite of its brevity, and without any trace of vanity or offensive

egotism, he limns his own personality as clearly as if the matter were objective instead of subjective. Even as a schoolboy, he tells us, he felt a boundless and indiscriminating reverence for all poets.

At every *première* I stood at the doors for hours merely to glimpse from afar the visage of Hauptmann, Schnitzler, or Sudermann, and to be reverently certain of their existence. I was childishly passionate in this reverence, and my exaltation knew no measure. And, singularly enough, whether it be a remnant of this erstwhile cult or rather an element of my own personality, even to-day I feel,—and quite without shame,—a sort of pious awe when I stand in the presence of the great men of our day. Even the friendship which many of them since then have vouchsafed me has not altered this boyish reverence.

With honor for the poet there was soon associated the desire of imitation. . . . I poetized through all the empty,—or what seemed to me empty,—years of the gymnasium, long before I boasted any experience; I wrote poems full of passion to fair ladies without ever having been in love. . . .

The natural consequence of all this academic verse-making was an extraordinary familiarity with form and facility of composition. At sixteen and seventeen years of age our young poet was already a contributor to such well-known periodicals as *Gesellschaft*, and at nineteen he published his first book of verse, "*Silberne Saiten*." Concerning this he makes a curious observation:

It had a certain literary success at that time, and still has, perhaps, with women. I myself still find music therein, but naught else of myself. Its melancholy and weary sadness is to-day as foreign to me as possible, and I ask myself whether at that time I really suffered so much from my first experiences, or whether the shadow of these verses was not merely a reflection of adolescence. In any case, I rejoice that to-day I love life more heartily and find in poetic creation only the highest possibility of increasing my consciousness of this joy.

This early period was marked likewise by a passion for translation. He tried his hand at Baudelaire, Verlaine, William Morris, Samain, and many others, until the epochal day when he met with the poet who was to become the inspiration of his life, Verhaeren. The great Belgian revealed to him the deeper joy that lies in the study and love of humanity rather than of literature. Since that day he tells us he has never been tempted to translate any work except that which is in spiritual harmony with his own most intimate conceptions of life. These years of literary practise were likewise his "wander-years." He spent many months in various parts of the globe,—in Paris, London, Rome, India, Africa, and America.



# THE CREATOR OF THE FIRST YANKEE OF LITERATURE

TO find "the cradle of Yankee humor," it seems, we are not to go to Boston, or any other New England town, but to Windsor in Nova Scotia, where lived, a century ago, Thomas Chandler Haliburton, the creator of "Sam Slick." In the *Bookman* for April we are reminded by Ruth Kedzie Wood that the Yankee clock-peddler first figured in a series of papers contributed anonymously to the *Nova Scotian*, published at Halifax in 1835.

The Squire (under this alias the writer chose to hide his identity) related in the first paper having met on the road, riding "a good bay horse," "a tall, thin man with hollow cheeks and bright, twinkling black eyes" who made himself known as Mr. Sam Slick, of Slickville, Onion County, Connecticut, a successful salesman (through knowledge of "soft sawder and human natur") of tawdry wooden clocks. During subsequent journeyings through the Nova Scotia peninsula, the Squire and the shrewd New Englander discussed from their saddles, or before the fires of wayside inns, a multitude of subjects of poignant interest to the North Americans and the Britishers of fourscore years ago.

Sam Slick's opinions and witting sayings, as set forth in the *Nova Scotian*, were so widely copied by newspapers in the United States and England that the editor decided to issue a book including the chapters already published in his paper and some additional contributions. In this form the writings of the unknown humorist had an immediate success under the title: "The Clockmaker; or, the Sayings and Doings of Samuel Slick of Slickville."

In England, Sam Slick was forthwith accepted as the symbolic American in speech, appearance, and manner of thought. He was boastful, he was unscrupulous and illiterate, and he talked with a twang. His judgments, however, were permeated with a saving wit, and "hoss-sense." So potent was Haliburton's delineation of the Yankee trader that up to the present day has it influenced the foreign estimate of the citizens of the United States.

Here are a few of Sam Slick's sayings that were accepted both in England and America as characteristically Yankee:

"The British can whip all the world, and we can whip the British," was a saying widely quoted. "I believe we may stump the Univarse," was another boast of Connecticut Sam. "We improve on everything and we have improved on our own species. . . . One of our free and enlightened citizens—he's the chap that has both speed, wind, and bottom; he's clear grit—ginger to the backbone, you may depend . . . sry as a fox,

supple as an eel, and cute as a weasel . . . they fairly take the shine off creation—they are actilly equal to cash." "Brag is a good dog and Holdfast a better one, but what do you say to a cross of the two? And that's just what we are," he asserts of his countrymen. "Push on—keep movin'—go ahead," is the maxim of the States according to this spokesman, who made his utterances little more than a half century after the new republic had begun its career under Washington.



JUDGE THOMAS C. HALIBURTON, OF  
NOVA SCOTIA  
(Creator of "Sam Slick")

For more than twenty years the authorship of the Sam Slick papers remained unknown, but when Judge Haliburton left his home in Windsor and went to live in England in 1856, the secret, in some way, was revealed. Although "The

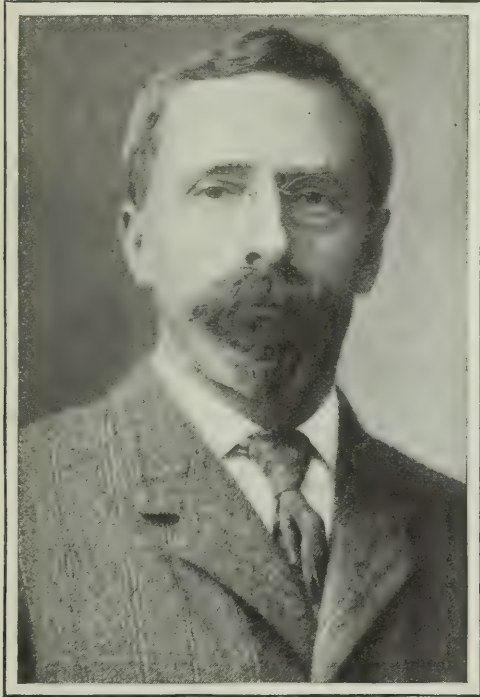
Clockmaker" had run into fifty editions and was ranked with the classic creations of Fielding and Smollett, the author never received any remuneration for it except a silver salver presented by Richard Bentley, his English publisher.

In 1859 Judge Haliburton was elected to Parliament. He died in 1865 at the age of sixty-eight and was buried on the banks of the Thames, near the grave of the explorer Vancouver.

Some of the clockmaker's sayings have become proverbs. "Circumstances alter cases" is one of these. "The houses hope builds are castles in the air," is another, and the writer of the *Bookman* article finds in the saying, "I guess I wasn't brought up at all, I growed," the ancestor of Topsy's quaint avowal.

# THE NEW BOOKS

## A TREATISE ON RAILROAD FINANCING



PROFESSOR WILLIAM Z. RIPLEY, OF HARVARD  
(Author of "Railroads: Finance and Organization")

**D**R. WILLIAM Z. RIPLEY, professor of economics at Harvard, follows his admirable work on "Rates and Regulation" of railroads with the timely volume, "Railroads: Finance and Organization."<sup>1</sup> The new work is well, though modestly, characterized by the author himself as "a constructive essay on government, systematizing information for others in a single great department of the business of the state; and offering, it may be, helpful suggestions at a critical time."

Dr. Ripley begins with chapters on Railroad Construction Finance, Capitalization, Stock, Mortgage Indebtedness, Market Prices, Speculation, and Stock Watering; he proceeds to a discussion of State Regulation of Security Issues, the Determination of Reasonable Rates, Physical Valuation, Receivership and Reorganization, Intercorporate Relations, and Railroad Combinations; the volume concluding with special chapters on the Anthracite Coal Arrangements, Dissolution under the Anti-Trust Law, and Pooling and Inter-Railway Agreements.

Such headings naturally give occasion for historical statements of the facts, figures, and methods of the great episodes in the record of American

railroads, many of them so unsavory: the earlier misfortunes of the Reading, the Union Pacific, the Baltimore & Ohio, the Northern Pacific, and Atchison, and the more recent financial tangles of the Rock Island system, the New Haven, the Alton, and the Boston and Maine.

The volume is, primarily, a comprehensive gathering of facts concerning the theory and practise of American railroad financing, stated clearly and dispassionately, and with a certain zest which, with the freedom from technical phrasing and elaboration, gives an unusual charm for the non-academic reader. It is a book which should be read from cover to cover by railroad executives and their directors and bankers concerned in railroad financing and by legislators, as well as by students in economics.

The important general conclusion that Dr. Ripley has formed is that whereas it was necessary to use stout legislative and administrative cudgels on the railroads to break down their historic resistance to collective control,—that fight has, since 1906-'10, been won; that the roads are now at the mercy of the public, and that the public must not be rude in its treatment of their interests unless great industrial harm is to come. This harm Dr. Ripley sees not so much in the harm to investors and to employees,—although that may be a matter of real moment,—as to the main ideal of the railroad institution: the giving of adequate service at reasonable rates to 100,000,000 people. He is able to say, after his unblinking consideration of the many disgraceful episodes in American railway financing, "that never in our history, and probably nowhere else in the world, has the standard of probity, a quickened sense of responsibility, both public and private, among American railroad men been more pronounced than it is at the present time."

Dr. Ripley hails the recent action of the Interstate Commerce Commission in granting the rate increase asked for by the Eastern railroads as a hopeful sign of the change in the public attitude that he considers necessary. Without this change the alternatives are, on the one hand, demoralization and disruption of the railroads and their service, and, on the other, government ownership.

More specifically, Dr. Ripley suggests that the railroads should be relieved of State regulation of their financial operations; and that the present prohibition of railroad pooling be removed and a positive legal sanction of the practise, under supervision of the Interstate Commerce Commission, be given. He argues forcefully that pooling is necessary to obviate certain serious wastes in competitive methods; that only by pooling can unusually complicated traffic situations be controlled, and freight be routed and handled, in the most economical manner.

<sup>1</sup> Railroads: Finance and Organization. By William Z. Ripley, Nathaniel Ropes Professor of Economics, Harvard. Longmans, Green & Co. 638 pp. \$3.



# WHAT TO SEE IN THE GREAT WEST



ENOS A. MILLS ENTERTAINING A CHIPMUNK  
CALLER  
(From "The Rocky Mountain Wonderland")

THE publishers are making a special effort this spring to provide for the thousands of Easterners who will cross the continent this year for the first time such books as may add to the pleasure and profit of the journey by supplying adequate information about the various regions traversed. One of the most inspiring of these new books is "The Rocky Mountain Wonderland,"<sup>1</sup> by Enos A. Mills, the man to whom credit is given for the establishment of the Rocky Mountain National Park in Colorado. It may be doubted whether the country as a whole has fully realized the extent of mountainous area in Colorado, or the relative altitudes of the Colorado peaks. In the preface of his book Mr. Mills states a few of these little-known facts: For example, that Colorado has one thousand mountain peaks that rise more than two miles into the sky; that about 150 of these reach up beyond 13,000 feet in altitude; that there are more than twice as many peaks of 14,000 feet in Colorado as in all the other States of the Union; that an enormous area is entirely above the limits of tree growth, although neither barren nor lifeless. With all this mountain region Mr. Mills is thoroughly familiar. His book is not merely a guide for the traveler,

although it gives the geographical data that are desirable and necessary, but, further than that, Mr. Mills, through narratives of his personal experience in the mountain region, stimulates the reader's interest and whets his curiosity. In short, he provides through his book a delightful form of introduction to the very genius of the Colorado mountains. What John Muir was to the Sierra, Enos Mills is to the Rockies.

On their way to or from San Francisco many tourists are likely to spend some time at the Yellowstone National Park. The most complete description and history of that wonderful region is a book by General H. M. Chittenden, U.S.A., retired. A new and enlarged edition of this work has just been printed from new plates.<sup>2</sup> General Chittenden was stationed for many years in the Park and directed the building of the national system of mountain roads which has made the scenic wonders of the Park accessible to travelers. The hotels and camping facilities have been more fully developed there than in any other



A YELLOWSTONE GEYSER

<sup>1</sup> The Rocky Mountain Wonderland. By Enos A. Mills. Houghton Mifflin. 363 pp., ill. \$1.75.

<sup>2</sup> The Yellowstone National Park. By Hiram Martin Chittenden. Stewart & Kidd. 350 pp., ill. \$1.75.



CRICKET, THE "RETURN HORSE," AT THE SUMMIT OF A COLORADO MOUNTAIN PASS  
(From "The Rocky Mountain Wonderland," by Enos A. Mills)

of the National Parks which may be passed on the journey to or from the coast. The geysers, which have given Yellowstone its fame, form in themselves an attraction not duplicated elsewhere.

The Exposition Edition of Clifton Johnson's "Highways and Byways of California"<sup>1</sup> deals, in pictures and text, with the most attractive scenery of the Pacific coast; for the author permitted himself many excursions into Arizona, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Nevada. There is a chapter devoted to the Yosemite Valley, and the notes appended to each chapter give automobile routes and facts and suggestions of general interest to tourists.

Many books have been written about the ancient Franciscan Missions of California, but if the visitor wishes to inform himself more particularly about the Spanish Fathers who founded and conducted those missions, he can nowhere find the facts so clearly stated in English as in a volume entitled "The California Padres and Their Missions,"<sup>2</sup> by Charles Francis Saunders and J. Smeaton Chase. The method of these writers is to devote one chapter to each of the missions, dividing each chapter into two sections, in the first of which the historical facts most likely to interest the general reader are woven into a personal narrative, while the second section is an essay or story designed to portray some feature of mission life or history. With one or two exceptions, even the names of the Franciscan Fathers of early California have been unknown in recent times, but in this book the personalities of nearly all of them are clearly brought out. A pilgrimage to these shrines of Californian history will be made far more interesting by a reading, or at

least a perusal, of this fresh account of the labors that brought them into being.

Those Americans who during the coming summer will visit the Pacific coast for the first time would do well to have with them a copy of "In the Oregon Country,"<sup>3</sup> by George Palmer Putnam. This is preëminently an outdoor book, permeated with the spirit of the Pacific Northwest. Descriptions of journeys over forest and mountain trails on foot and horseback, fishing and hunting expeditions, canoe voyages and mountain climbing, with Indian legends and folklore, make up the contents of the volume. We should not omit to mention the illustrations, which are remarkably successful reproductions of scenic photographs. The book has a chapter on "A Summer in the Sierras" which makes an entertaining excursion into California.

Another book that should appeal to the overland traveler is the new edition of "In the Old West,"<sup>4</sup> a classic story of the times of Kit Carson and the "mountain men," related by one who knew them well, Lieutenant George Frederick Ruxton, of the British Army, who wrote his narrative before the rush of gold-seekers to California in '49. These trappers and hunters of the days before the Mexican War were the real pioneers who blazed the trail across the Rockies to the Pacific. Lieutenant Ruxton's book has come down to us as one of the few contemporary pictures of the Far West in that era.

Dr. John Finley, the New York State Commissioner of Education, is the author of "The French in the Heart of America."<sup>5</sup> The volume recounts the experiences of the early French explorers and adventurers on this continent and traces the later

<sup>1</sup> Highways and Byways of California. By Clifton Johnson. Macmillan. 323 pp., ill. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> The California Padres and Their Missions. By J. Smeaton Chase and Charles Francis Saunders. Houghton Mifflin. 418 pp., ill. \$2.50.

<sup>3</sup> In the Oregon Country. By George Palmer Putnam. 169 pp., ill. \$1.75.

<sup>4</sup> In the Old West. By George Frederick Ruxton. New York: Outing Publishing Company. 345 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> The French in the Heart of America. By John Finley. Scribners. 431 pp. \$2.50.



history of the localities where the original French settlements were planted. In several of its latter chapters the book gives a graphic description of the Mississippi Valley States as they are to-day. Himself a native of Illinois, Dr. Finley, with appreciation of what he terms the Valley of the New Democracy, at the same time pays tribute to the courage and heroism of the French explorers who opened the country to civilization. The epilogue of the volume is an appreciation of Francis Parkman, the historian of France in the new world,

who, as Dr. Finley finely says, "has in a sense made this all possible for me: first, by reason of the love he gave me long ago for his New France with its primeval forests, its virgin prairies, its glistening rivers, its untamed Indians, its explorers, its gray and black cowls, its *coucours de bois*, its stars, whose light had never before looked on a white face; and second, by reason of the mass of incident and color which he has supplied for the background of the life I have known in that valley."

## THE GREAT OUT-OF-DOORS



"Open your doors and take me in,  
Spirit of the wood;  
Take me—make me next of kin  
To your leafy brood."

EVERYONE loves trees, or some favorite tree,—pine, elm, maple, fragrant cedar, one of the multitudinous brotherhood that throng the hillsides and valleys. It will probably not be many years before forestry education will be one of the required subjects at all of our universities.

The University of Vermont and State Agricultural College already require every sophomore to take a course of six months' tuition in farm forestry and to spend two weeks at a forestry camp. A most excellent book to take to the country with one is the "Field Book of American Trees and Shrubs,"<sup>1</sup> by F. Schuyler Matthews, a manual of descriptions of our native species, showing their peculiarities and distribution, illustrated with maps and many drawings. For more extended knowledge, "Studies in Trees,"<sup>2</sup> by J. J. Levison, may be recommended, a book which treats of forestry in all its aspects, nature, growth, habits of trees, their care and preservation.

The romance of agriculture forms a substantial part of the great epic of nation building, and to those who are interested in agriculture, the science of plant-breeding is a fascinating subject. The individuality of plants, the possible differentiations of species, their marvelous adaptations to environment, the laws of their growth, and the power to actually produce new forms of vegetation, urge the agricultural layman to pursue the study of plants. Professor Bailey's standard book, "Plant Breeding,"<sup>3</sup> has been issued in a new edition revised by A. W. Gilbert, Professor of Plant Breeding in the New York State College of Agriculture. Laboratory exercises and a bibliography are included in this comprehensive work.

Another standard book by Professor Bailey, "The Principles of Fruit Growing,"<sup>4</sup> has been re-

written and brought up to date so as to include the recent experiments with fruits, the heating of orchards, methods for treating the diseases of trees and handling insects, and the results of experiments with fertilizers. The illustrations are all new and consist of reproductions from hand drawings made especially for this issue.

"The Bird Book,"<sup>5</sup> by Chester A. Reed, is now offered in the "Nature Book Series." It is one of the most comprehensive books of its kind and contains descriptions of 768 birds from every part of the country, with descriptions of their eggs, size, range, habits, and Latin names; also 1000



ILLUSTRATION FROM "JOHNNY APPLESEED"

<sup>1</sup> Field Book of American Trees and Shrubs. By F. Schuyler Matthews. Putnams. 465 pp. \$2.

<sup>2</sup> Studies in Trees. By J. J. Levison. 253 pp. John Wiley & Sons. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> Plant Breeding. By Bailey and Gilbert. Macmillan. 474 pp. \$2.

<sup>4</sup> The Principles of Fruit Growing. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan. 432 pp. \$1.75.

<sup>5</sup> The Bird Book. By Chester A. Reed. Doubleday, Page. 472 pp., ill. \$3.

illustrations of birds and their eggs and hundreds of pen drawings of birds in their native haunts and on the wing, and 500 color plates of birds that make identification easy for the young naturalist. Mr. Reed has among his many nature books an excellent volume on "American Game Birds," and a beautiful flower guide, "Wild Flowers East of the Rockies."

Those who are curious about the now half-legendary "Patron Saint of American Orchards," "Johnny Appleseed,"<sup>1</sup> will find in the Congressional records, that in the year 1837 a representative from Ohio rose in his place and called the attention of Congress to the death of an old man who, he said, had done more for the Middle West than any man of his era. This man, the most compelling personality that crossed the Alleghenies in his generation, was John Chapman, otherwise known as "Johnny Appleseed." He appeared in the Potomac valley in 1789, and in Western Pennsylvania the following year. In September, 1790, he drifted down the Ohio River in a boat filled with bags of appleseeds, and steered on into the wilderness in advance of other pioneers. Whenever he found an open spot in the forest, there he spaded up the soil and planted his seeds, and often cuttings of small fruits. Around these clearings he built fences of poles and brush to keep the deer away, then hurried on to repeat his labor of love in the next open glade. When the settlers arrived on the scenes of his labors, they found apple trees and sometimes hardy cherry, peach and plum trees and cuttings of the Catawba grape growing in the wilderness.

In 1815, "Johnny Appleseed" was lost in the forest. When he emerged he had evidently suffered a severe illness, for he was slightly demented and came out wearing one of his apple sacks for a garment and a rusty tin pan balanced on his head in place of a hat. For several years his mind was clouded and he lived in the care of friends, then he recovered and resumed his labors. Once he made a trip to New England to get flower seeds which he planted thereafter along with his orchards up and down the Middle West. Little is known about his early career; he appeared suddenly,—a man with a vision of a great commonwealth,—going about a nation's business with all the inspired determination of the Puritan blood that flowed in his veins.

"Johnny Appleseed," a recent novel by Eleanor Atkinson, gives a pleasant account of his life woven into a romantic background that includes other historical characters. A more moving narration of his life-work may be found in another novel, "The Quest of John Chapman,"<sup>2</sup> by Dr. Newell Dwight Hillis.

Mr. R. P. Clarkson, Professor of Engineering in Acadia University and engineering correspondent of the *Rural New Yorker*, sets forth in a handy volume a simple explanation of emergency problems in farm engineering and farm mechanics—problems that are concerned with water supply, sewage disposal, building a fence, land drainage, irrigation, heating and lighting, care and use of farm tools, lightning protection and cold storage. Tables for engineering calculations, figures and illustrations are included in this practical work that solves many perplexing problems for farmers.<sup>3</sup>

## ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION

AFTER the North and South Poles had both been discovered, it doubtless seemed to many that nothing remained to be done in the Arctic or Antarctic regions. But, as a matter of fact, the activities since the Poles were discovered have been quite as great as before, especially in the direction of scientific exploration. The finding of the South Pole was only an incident in the great task of exploring the Antarctic continent, and to this task the expeditions of Scott, Shackleton, and Mawson have contributed much. The Australasian expedition, headed by Sir Douglas Mawson, was in the field for the greater part of three years, beginning with 1911. The thrilling story of the adventures through which the Mawson party passed, with a summary of the results achieved, is comprised in two large illustrated volumes entitled "The Home of the Blizzard."<sup>4</sup> The narrative gives ample evidence that the title of the book was well chosen. Comparatively little had been known about the meteorological conditions in this portion of Antarctica west of the line of Scott's expedition, but it seems that the principal feature is high winds. All the members of the Mawson expedition became skilled in what is called "leaning on the wind," and when we read that a velocity of eighty miles an hour was a matter of

ordinary occurrence, the wonder grows that in such weather the party was able to accomplish anything at all. Yet, in spite of the loss of several of its most valuable members, the expedition returned with a great mass of scientific data. These volumes, however, do not pretend to give more than a general statement as to the discoveries made, but they include a full account of some of the dramatic episodes of the expedition, of which the most striking was Sir Douglas Mawson's own escape from death after his two companions on a sledge journey had perished. The photographic illustrations are numerous and make more vivid the descriptions of Antarctic scenery contained in the text.

In addition to what has already been published concerning Scott's Antarctic expedition, we now have the complete narrative of the "Northern Party,"<sup>5</sup> by Raymond E. Priestley, with 150 illustrations from photographs. Besides supplying many interesting facts about the Scott expedition, this book adds materially to the general fund of information regarding the regions surrounding the South Pole.

<sup>1</sup> Johnny Appleseed. By Eleanor Atkinson. Harpers. 341 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>2</sup> The Quest of John Chapman. By Newell Dwight Hillis. Macmillan.

<sup>3</sup> Practical Talks on Farm Engineering. By R. P. Clarkson. Doubleday. Page. 223 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> The Home of the Blizzard. By Sir Douglas Mawson. 2 Vols. Lippincott. 687 pp., ill. \$9.

<sup>5</sup> Antarctic Adventure: Scott's Northern Party. By Raymond E. Priestley. Dutton. 382 pp., ill. \$5.



# SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL STUDIES

MISS FRANCES A. KELLOR'S book, "Out of Work: A Study of Unemployment,"<sup>1</sup> is a serious analysis of the problem, based on the writer's direct personal knowledge of labor-market conditions. The study was begun long before the present crisis had developed in America; in fact, the original edition of the book appeared more than ten years ago. Unfortunately, little actual progress has been made in the organization of the labor market in this country since that time, but such revision as was necessary, in order to make the book describe accurately the present situation, has been made. The chief value of the work lies in the practical suggestions for immediate aid that may be adopted at once by individual employers, organized industries, and official bodies. The last chapter is devoted to a definite program for America.

"Reflections on Violence,"<sup>2</sup> by Georges Sorel, has for several years been regarded as the text-book of European Syndicalism. A translation of the work from the French has now been made by T. E. Hulme. Socialists on the continent, among whom Sorel has exercised a great influence as an original thinker, believe that his book will come

to share a place with Karl Marx's "Capital." The book contains a far broader statement and exposition of Sorel's views than the mere defense of Syndicalism, with which American readers have thus far been familiar.

The inspiring story of the work of women in various municipalities has been excellently told by Mrs. Mary Ritter Beard in a clarified account of their civic enterprise in the fields of education, housing, safety, corrections, civic improvement, government, and administration.<sup>3</sup> Its content argues for the entrance of women into the administration of all matters that directly or indirectly relate to human welfare. The author states the indisputable fact that middle-class women have much more leisure than middle-class men, to concern themselves with "public health, public ornamentation, public recreation, protection of girls and boys, infant welfare, etc.," and quotes Joseph H. Choate's statement made a few years ago in which he declared that "women are vastly more interested than we are in the administration of the criminal law, in the preservation of law and order, and in the suppression and punishment of crime."

## PREPAREDNESS FOR WAR

THE war in Europe seems to be responsible directly or indirectly, for six recent books which have to do with national prospects of the United States, and especially with the state of preparedness for war that has been achieved by our army and navy. Dr. Roland G. Usher's "Pan-Americanism,"<sup>4</sup> has a sub-title that is partially self-explanatory,—"a forecast of the inevitable clash between the United States and Europe's victor." In brief, the author's position is that the maintenance of the Monroe Doctrine will compel the United States to declare war on the victor in the present European conflict. His conclusion is that Pan-Americanism, as he terms it, has no future.

General Francis V. Greene's little book, "The Present Military Situation in the United States," states with the greatest conciseness the possibilities, however remote, of attack on the United States from Great Britain, Germany, and Japan. It shows the present condition of unpreparedness from every military standpoint and points out certain well-considered methods of meeting this condition. The book makes a powerful appeal to the sober sense of our citizenship.

"Are We Ready?"<sup>5</sup> is the title of a vigorous arraignment of our scheme of national defense by Howard D. Wheeler, with a prefatory letter by Major-General Wood. The book has suggestive

chapters on what war really is as revealed by the present European conflict, on failure of our untrained armies in former wars, and a terse summing-up of what can be done to make our lines of defense effective.

Robert W. Neeser has written a little book on "Our Navy and the Next War."<sup>7</sup> This work has pertinent information regarding our naval peace preparation, our national policy, manner in which the fleet is employed, and other matters, a knowledge of which is essential to an understanding of the problems the government is facing.

A former government official has taken for his theme "Stultitia,"<sup>8</sup> or folly as personified by certain legislators at Washington. His theme is treated in the form of four discussions under the heading "A Nightmare and an Awakening." It is really an indictment of Congress for failure to meet the country's needs in matters of defense and preparation.

Another argument for preparedness is contained in the book entitled "Peace Insurance,"<sup>9</sup> by Richard Stockton, Jr., of the Bordentown Military Institute. He goes into the question of the cost of the army and navy during peace, as well as the cost of war and its horrors, and concludes that there is no cheaper substitute for a trained military force. He strongly urges that the recommendations of the General Staff of the army and of the General Board of the navy should be carried out at once.

<sup>1</sup> Out of Work: A Study of Unemployment. By Frances A. Kellor. Putnam. 569 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> Reflections on Violence. By Georges Sorel. Translated by T. E. Hulme. Huebsch. 299 pp. \$2.25.

<sup>3</sup> Woman's Work in Municipalities. By Mary Ritter Beard. Appleton. 344 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>4</sup> Pan-Americanism. By Roland G. Usher. Century. 466 pp. \$2.

<sup>5</sup> The Present Military Situation in the United States. By Francis V. Greene. Scribners. 102 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>6</sup> Are We Ready? By Howard D. Wheeler. Houghton Mifflin. 228 pp., ill. \$1.50.

<sup>7</sup> Our Navy and the Next War. By Robert W. Neeser. Scribners. 204 pp. \$1.

<sup>8</sup> Stultitia: A Nightmare and An Awakening in Four Discussions. By a Former Government Official. Stokes. 180 pp. \$1.

<sup>9</sup> Peace Insurance. By Richard Stockton, Jr. McClurg. 214 pp. \$1.

## STUDIES OF MODERN RELIGION

"THE Rise of Modern Religious Ideas"<sup>1</sup> is sketched briefly by Dr. Arthur Cushman McGiffert, to show how religious thought has been moving through past generations. The repudiation of religious dependence upon reason in the 18th century is one of the striking transformations discussed; also the latest rationalistic development in modern Protestantism, the ability to look without loss of faith on the historical facts brought to light by modern Biblical research and the higher criticism. Dr. McGiffert takes heart for Christianity in that it has always adjusted itself to the ethical and intellectual tendencies of the age, and will in the end reveal to mankind that true religion is entirely dependent upon humanity, not upon bondage to any revealed word, social body, or external authority. It is an inspiring exposition of the new theology.

"Deliverance: The Freeing of the Spirit in the Ancient World,"<sup>2</sup> by Henry Osborn Taylor, follows the course of the spiritual strivings of man from the beginnings of history until the Christian era. He shows how under differing physical and mental environments great individual minds evolved different conceptions of God, which were blindly accepted by the less thoughtful of each nation; and how each conception tended as time went on to blend and merge one with the other. Lack of space prevents quotation from this thoughtful work, that for impartial judgment, nobility of style, and radiance of faith cannot be excelled among the religious books of the year. Dr. Taylor closes his discussion with this thought: "Think of eternity and of thyself, O man. Do the two fit each other?"

Just as there are epochs in history, so there are epochs in religion. The religion of a normal individual is not stationary; it must be in flux, or else his spiritual life ossifies and growth becomes impossible. Every day rings out the old and rings in the new, not only in science and art, but in religion. We are dying in some way every moment, in order that we may go on living. A book that tries to test the potency of a religion that constantly undergoes change is "A Century's Change in Religion,"<sup>3</sup> by George Harris, President Emeritus of Amherst College. Dr. Harris finds that religious beliefs and practises have changed more in the last fifty years than they did in the previous eighteen hundred. He reads the signs of the times and sees a revival of spiritual and esthetic values: "art, music, poetry, character, duty, faith," and of Christianity, "disencumbered, clarified, enlarged; the essentials, God, Christ, the spiritual life, brotherhood, immortality, not denied but affirmed."

"Faith and Social Service,"<sup>4</sup> by George Hodges, comprises eight lectures delivered before the Lowell Institute. It is a practical discussion of ways and means to get efficiency out of the

churches by intelligent coöperation. Mr. Hodges writes ironically that the inscription placed by Robert Owen over his Harmony Hall, "C. M.," meaning "Commencement of Millennium," cannot yet be written over the door of any ecclesiastical assembly. He entreats the churches to join forces and become an actual "Good Government Club," to advance the kingdom of God in the community. He takes the following facts about New York City churches from a pamphlet, "What Are the Churches Going to Do About It?"

"In New York City there are 555 churches. Most of them are still administered upon the lines of narrow denominationalism. The parish is considered rather than the city, and the interests of the sect are advanced rather than the cause of Jesus Christ. One district with a population of 16,391 bodies has a saloon to every 111 inhabitants, and one church to every 8196. . . . The situation is worse in another district, with one saloon to every 158 and one church to every 9422. . . . In a third district, among 49,359 inhabitants, there is one saloon to every 208, and one church to every 9872. . . . West of Tenth Avenue, between Fortieth and Sixty-fourth Streets, there is only one church; there are 46,563 people living in that district."

In "The Episcopal Church: Its Faith and Order,"<sup>5</sup> Mr. Hodges publishes ten lectures prepared in such order that they may be used for systematic instruction by pastors of churches. They are not tiresome discussions of dogmas and creeds, but orderly arrangements of the reasons for faith as set forth in the teachings of the Episcopal Church, both in its ritualistic forms and in its deeper meanings. The author writes for humanity, and no better book for religious study, for clergy, laity, and for the younger members of churches has appeared in some time. Dr. Hodges has not been idle in the trenches while the battle moved on around him. The chapters on "Prayer" and "Renunciation" reach a high plane of spiritual philosophy. Of amusements he writes: "Anything which ministers to our baser selves, spoiling the fineness of our thoughts, smearing the fair surface of our souls, lowering our ideals of conduct, or taking up too much of our time must be given up." Of faith: It is an unsolvable equation in theology, an uncharted country, and "level with the humblest mind,"—the only gateway unto the Father.

The answer is,—a federation of churches to save souls and bodies, not to advance selfish sectarian interests.

Another book by Mr. Hodges, his Lowell lectures on "The Early Church,"<sup>6</sup> presents material largely derived from the works of the ante-Nicene, Nicene, and post-Nicene Fathers in most attractive and readable form. The Roman Empire, polyglot in people and in gods, tolerant in everything save its own imperialism, is brought vividly before the reader's mind; and into this empire, the entrance of a new religion that upheld no dream of earthly empire, and recognized but one God. The rise of monasticism in the East and in the West, the coming of Chrysostom the "Golden Mouth," and the

<sup>1</sup> The Rise of Modern Religious Ideas. By Arthur C. McGiffert. Macmillan. 315 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> Deliverance. By Henry Osborn Taylor. Macmillan. 294 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> A Century's Change in Religion. By George Harris. Houghton, Mifflin. 267 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>4</sup> Faith and Social Service. By George Hodges. Macmillan. 270 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>5</sup> The Episcopal Church: Its Faith and Order. By George Hodges. Macmillan. 204 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>6</sup> The Early Church. By George Hodges. Houghton, Mifflin. 299 pp. \$1.75.



life of St. Augustine, furnish matters of more thrilling interest than the pages of romance. One finds in a book of this kind not only rest and recreation, but the upbuilding of moral fiber. This book should be among those recommended to those who are unable to have a college course in the history of religions.

"Jesus and Politics"<sup>1</sup> tries to show that a man's political actions should be one with his Christian life; that the Church is sterile unless it can reach out and dominate the mainsprings of a man's life in the world. The "root-evil of the world is individualism," selfish individualism, and from this disease Jesus Christ came to deliver us. We have no justification of political ideals that are not worthy; spiritual gain is alone worth working for. The author, Harold B. Shephard, calls for volunteers to carry the Church into the hearts of men; to restore the Kingdom of Heaven on earth.

"The Bible as Literature"<sup>2</sup> is a useful work designed for undergraduates. It is arranged in separate lessons, covering different periods, each lesson followed by topics and assignments, the whole prepared with care and presented with simplicity. A valuable index of historical reference works and complete maps for each period render it an especially valuable handbook. While the effort is to magnify in the students' minds the literary values of the Bible, the purpose of the author is to at the same time instill practical lessons in religion. The consensus of biblical research and the author's point of view on disputed matters are given without prejudice, and the effect is decidedly inspiring as regards Bible study. This book is the joint work of Irving Francis Wood and Elihu Grant, and is the outcome of years of biblical teaching at Smith College.

Joseph S. Auerbach's essay, "The Bible and Modern Life,"<sup>3</sup> is now reprinted as a separate volume. The Rev. Boyd Carpenter calls attention in the introduction to the silent work that the Bible has accomplished in the hearts and lives of men and women. He notes that when "anxious

and responsible men gathered around the sick-bed of Edmund Burke, seeking counsel in an hour of national agony, he consoled them by reminding them of the stability of character which marked the people, and sent them away with a message of courageous patience drawn from the Bible. 'Endure,' he said, 'till this tyranny be overpast.'" The essay is a noble work, illuminating and helpful.

Mr. Thomas Wilby sets forth the essentials of Mary Baker Eddy's teachings in a book of concise statement: "What Is Christian Science?"<sup>4</sup> The author writes from outside the Christian Science Church and his material is not mixed with propaganda. One of the best things brought forward for the enlightenment of those who have misunderstood is the statement that the doctrine of the perfection of man and the universe does not relate to the material world, but solely to the spiritual universe.

The study of the Hebrew religion is most important to the student of civilization, because this religion is recognized as the parent of the dominant element of our civilization. John Punnet Peters has prepared an authoritative work on "The Religion of the Hebrews,"<sup>5</sup> intended to serve as a guide for ministers, students, teachers, and all thoughtful people who are desirous of tracing the development of the only religion that we are able to trace, from its beginning to its completed form, with nearly absolute accuracy. Professor Peters is fortunate in his great knowledge of Semitic languages, and also that he has had opportunity for study and research in biblical lands as director of the Babylonian expedition. The part played in the Hebrew religion by the Messianic hope, as outlined by the author, reveals the fact that is often overlooked: that the Hebrews at times did not look for the personal Messiah, but for the Messianic Kingdom, the entrance of Israel into an era of general salvation. The work of research and the writing of this book have been a labor of twenty years.

## THE NOVEL AND LIFE

"THE TURMOIL"<sup>6</sup> is a story of American business life by Booth Tarkington,—the story of a city, a dirty and wonderful city pictured as an entity that desired wealth and "Bigness." The city, panting from a thousand giant chimneys, shrieked to the American soil: "We must be bigger! Blow, boost, brag, kill the fault-finder! Scream and bellow to the Most High! Bigness is Patriotism and Honor! Business is Love and Life and Happiness! Bigness is Money! We want Bigness!" And the city got what it wanted, and the man who began modestly in the village at the crossroads becomes the fierce appetite of Bigness and the great trust magnate of the Middle West. His type is a solid one; it has the respect of the civilization that made its evolution

possible; it is sincere. Mr. Tarkington draws the portrait with slashing simplicity; then he proceeds to the business of the novel, the evolution of the families that these business-educated plebeian millionaires drag after them, persons who blend ignorance and great wealth into a standard of crude values that,—until understood,—furnish the mirth of culture. The story is simple enough,—the merest scaffolding of a plot,—the greatest meagerness of incident, the whole marred by the introduction of too much family bickering. The book seems a sketch of its own sequel, paradoxically speaking, but no one but an American could have written it, and an American humble enough to understand that even in the most sordid business tangle of our most sordid cities there lurks

<sup>1</sup> Jesus and Politics. By Harold B. Shephard. E. P. Dutton. 145 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> The Bible as Literature. By I. F. Wood and Elihu Grant. Abingdon Press, Chicago. Methodist Book Concern. 346 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>3</sup> The Bible and Modern Life. By Joseph Auerbach. Harpers. 138 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>4</sup> What Is Christian Science? By Thomas W. Wilby. John Lane. 183 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>5</sup> The Religion of the Hebrews. By John Punnet Peters. Ginn and Company. 502 pp. \$2.75.

<sup>6</sup> The Turmoil. By Booth Tarkington. Harpers. 349 pp. \$1.35.

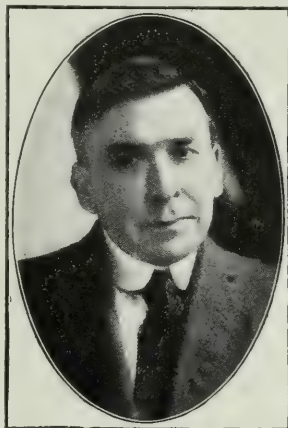
tenderness, and poetry and beauty in characters that display our most disagreeable national traits. That we sin industrially in subjection to blind impulse, Mr. Tarkington maintains; that this impulse cannot hold the younger generation, that idealistic values spring up and come to flower in the furnace pots of factories, that Bigness will become in the end the servant, not the master, of American life,—this is his message, and in its music minor literary faults of "The Turmoil" are lost and we have a glimpse of "a far country" that waits for our children's children.

Literary critics have been almost unanimous in praising "The Harbor,"<sup>1</sup> a novel that deals with phases of modern industrialism.

To make a correct estimate of the merits of this work by Ernest Poole requires at least a slight knowledge of the author's personal background. He has given his fiction the setting of New York Harbor, but he is a native of Chicago, educated at Princeton. After his graduation he came to live for three years in the University Settlement in the Lower East Side of New York, and for a time took particular interest in the lives of street gamins, messenger boys, bootblacks, newsboys and little vagrants who sleep in the parks and in corners around Chinatown. Later he became interested in the child labor movement and also in the fight against tuberculosis. For purposes of investigation, he lived six weeks in the so-called "Lung Block" under Brooklyn Bridge. After these activities, Mr. Poole turned his attention to trade unions and later went to Chicago and became involved in the great stockyard strike and helped

Upton Sinclair gather material for "The Jungle." In 1905 he went to Russia and worked with the revolutionists. The autumn of 1914 found him on the firing line on the western battle front in Germany.

If you read "The Harbor" with these facts in mind, you will perceive the novel as a product of Mr. Poole's kaleidoscopic activities and his interest in industrial warfare,—a moving picture film of the sordid and the romantic history of New York Harbor,—or of any great harbor. It is a study of the metamorphosis of economic valuations that follows the plunge of alien laborers into the whirlpool of wage life in our Republic; also a study of "Big Business" and of a new type of men and women,—the men and women who find their supreme satisfaction in revolution, in transformation, who deal neither in past nor future, in nothing that is settled and secure, but only in the breath of struggle. "The Harbor" is hardly great fiction, but it is magnificent movement,—a blinding, choking whiff from the crater of modern industrialism, the melting pot of the gods.



BOOTH TARKINGTON  
(Author of "The Turmoil")

The fifth volume of the new translation of Fyodor Dostoevski's novel, "The House of the Dead,"<sup>2</sup> might well be a sequel of "Crime and Punishment," since it gives the author's experiences in a Siberian prison. Dostoevski takes the brutality of life in a convict settlement as a matter of discipline, a necessary training for his genius. He does not attempt to arouse bitterness nor the spirit of revenge, nor picture convicts to us as misused heroes or unfortunate demi-gods. He finds the healing balm of friendship in the dumb sympathy of the prison dog and the prison horse.

In "Hillsboro People,"<sup>3</sup> a volume of short stories of Vermont life, Dorothy Canfield drills far below the austere, barren surface of the New England character and discloses unsuspected springs and fountains of emotion. No writer since Lowell has interpreted the rural Yankee more faithfully or with a more sympathetic pen.

"Contrary Mary," by Temple Bailey,<sup>4</sup> is a pleasant old-fashioned novel of sentiment that develops several delightfully quaint love stories. The scene of the story is Washington and matters of national importance figure in the background. The heroine is a sturdy American girl with a decided will of her own. While the narrative is rather loosely constructed, bits of local color and enthusiastic descriptive passages heighten the romantic appeal of the story and give "Contrary Mary" a secure place among the attractive fiction of the year.



ERNEST POOLE  
(Author of "The Harbor")

<sup>2</sup> The House of the Dead. By Fyodor Dostoevski. Macmillan. 284 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>3</sup> Hillsboro People. By Dorothy Canfield. Holt. 346 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>4</sup> Contrary Mary. By Temple Bailey. Penn Publishing Co. 388 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>1</sup> The Harbor. By Ernest Poole. Macmillan. 387 pp. \$1.40.



## TWO POETS OF THE DAY

IRONY, humor, satire, and the realization of the impermanency of impermanence, predominate in the work of James Stephens, the inspired Irish poet-novelist, a man who possesses a more purely spiritual imagination than any other English-writing poet to-day. In his last book of verse, "Songs from the Clay,"<sup>1</sup> one hears sudden, swift laughter, lusty vagabonds singing by the hedge-rows, the stirring of invisible angelic wings, and the sardonic chuckles of malevolent imps. Among the poets who have shared in the Celtic renaissance, Stephens is the crystal-gazer. He bends patiently over the great crystal of life and records the significance of the shadow shapes that gather and dissolve within its confusing twilight, chanting to us truly, that no man shall ever be able to say,—whence, nor,—whither, and, that nought endures at the end save the crystal itself. You can afford to miss much poetry, but you cannot afford to miss James Stephens' three collections, "Insurrections," "The Hill of Vision," and "Songs From the Clay."

Edwin Arlington Robinson's notable poem, "Captain Craig,"<sup>2</sup> has been issued in a revised form, accompanied by various new lyrics and poems of psychological insight. "Captain Craig" is said to have had an original in a venerable Jew still living in New England. Mr. Robinson makes him a lovable old scalawag, a combination of satyr and saint, much averse to earning a living, not a success as a beggar, but possessed of a tremendous philosophical intuition and an excellent knowledge of Greek. He exists on the charity of a few young literary men, entertaining them with Socratic dialectic and, whenever they are absent, with a voluminous correspondence mainly of analytical philosophy. Robinson has been called "The American Browning." His great passion is for Truth, for intellectual and spiritual sincerity. "The Book of Annandale," a splendid poem included in this collection, is one of the most moving emotional narratives found in modern poetry. "Van Zorn," a drama published in 1914, illustrates the use of his interpretative method.

## BERNARD SHAW AND NIETZSCHE

MR. JOHN PALMER, the literary and dramatic critic of the London *Saturday Review*, gives us a new and amazing pen portrait of the real Bernard Shaw, contrasted with the legendary personality which has become public property.<sup>3</sup> He calls the Bernard Shaw whom the public knows, the "screen" for the retiring gentleman who lives quietly in Adelphi Terrace. He directs our attention to the fact that the vigorous pamphleteer, the provocative writer of plays, the vendor of Socialist theory, is a man of "inaccessible privacy"; a man who has never been really interviewed, and who lives before the public in a personality manufactured for public consumption, which is utterly at variance with his true self. Shaw is not an original thinker, nor a propagandist of new ideas, writes Mr. Palmer; he is humble and unspoiled and stands aloof from his own fame; he is not a jester; he is as serious as "Praise-God Barebones and as careful as Octavius Cæsar." As for his reputation as a brilliant, cold-blooded rationalist, that is a pure fallacy; he has always insisted that reason is no motive to power. Neither is he an anarchist, a disturber of the peace, nor is he even,—and this is the public's last stand,—"a headlong, dashing, and opinionated writer." Just here, when the reader fears that nothing will be left of the intellectual raiment of the public's Shaw, Mr. Palmer pauses in his precipitous flight to tell us what Mr. Shaw is behind the mask. The actual G. B. S. is "an agent of a power and passion which uses his prejudices, memories, and doctrines in a way he is intellectually powerless to resist"; he is the apostle of the commonplaces of his time, a vital influence in modern literature because of his passion and style, a Puritan zealot, a Socialist by accident, a man who has a mission, —to convict the Englishmen above all men of sin

and of the necessity for humility and repentance," and a prophet of the ethical ideal. You may not agree with Mr. Palmer, but you will enjoy reading his book.

A volume of selections from the works of Frederick Nietzsche<sup>4</sup> has been prepared for the reader who has not time for a leisurely survey of the eighteen volumes that comprise his life-work. As a presentation in compact form of biographical data and certain extracts from the philosopher's writings, the book is admirable and will serve a useful end. As an interpretation of the real Nietzsche, the book will meet differences of opinion. Mr. Willard Huntington Wright, the author, presents Nietzsche as the maker of a practical code, founded in the dominating instincts of the organic and inorganic world, that has for its ideals "life charged with a maximum of beauty, power, enthusiasm, virility, wealth, and intoxication," and a race "which will possess the harder virtues of strength, confidence, exuberance, and affirmation." Mr. Wright synthesizes all of Nietzsche's writings into a doctrine which the author calls a "workable and entirely comprehensible code of conduct to meet present-day needs," a doctrine that, if followed, will produce "supermen," the "lords of the earth." Nietzsche's essential sensitiveness of spirit is covered by the pomp of his mind; his spurt of intellectual defiance hides the inertia of his soul. With due appreciation of Mr. Wright's work and gratitude for the elixir of virility that Nietzsche poured into the veins of philosophers, one may still reserve the privilege of turning his paradoxes upside down and of inverting his inversions. The supreme thing Nietzsche did was to show us that every rule works all ways, not only backwards and forwards, but up and down, radiating from a center to every arc of the circumference of life. An excellent Teutonic estimate of Nietzsche has been written by Dr. Paul Carus.

<sup>1</sup> Songs from the Clay. By James Stephens. Macmillan. 106 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> Captain Craig. By Edwin Arlington Robinson. Macmillan. 182 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> George Bernard Shaw, Harlequin or—Patriot. By John Palmer. Century. 81 pp. 50 cents.

<sup>4</sup> What Nietzsche Taught. By Willard H. Wright. Huebsch. 329 pp. \$2.

## MUSIC AND PAINTING

ERNEST NEWMAN, eminent English critic, prefaces his new book on "Wagner as Man and Artist"<sup>1</sup> with an apology for the fact that this is his third book on the same subject, but pleads in extenuation that the 'subject of Wagner is inexhaustible. Undoubtedly more has been written about him than about any other musician, and there is more biographical material available in connection with him than with any other artist who has ever lived. A new biography is urgently needed, since a huge mass of new material has come to light in the last ten years. But Mr. Newman was appalled by the magnitude of that task, and preferred rather to study Wagner first of all as a man, and then his theory and practise as a musician; and to attempt—what was impossible until the publication of Wagner's autobiography in 1911—a "complete and impartial psychological estimate of him." It may be said at once that this attempt has resulted in one of the most intensely interesting and most valuable of all the myriad books about the great composer, albeit it is slightly uneven in quality as between the two phases into which the author chooses for his purposes of critical analysis to partition the human manifestation "Wagner," and the psychological estimate, masterly as it is, undoubtedly misses completeness, as it assuredly does not attain to absolute impartiality.

In his attempt to reconstruct Richard Wagner as man and musician from his own letters, his autobiography, the letters and reminiscences of others, his prose works, and his music, Mr. Newman has been so intent on confuting those hero-worshippers who have painted Wagner as an impeccable saint, brutally sinned against but pathetically incapable of sinning, that he has leaned to the other extreme and has depicted Wagner the man as an unbelievably selfish and eternally self-centered egoist, in all things (except his art) base, mean, ignoble;—"luxuriant, petulant, egoistic, improvident, extreme in everything, roaring, shrieking, weeping, laughing, never doubting himself, never doubting that whoever opposed him, or did not do all for him that he expected, was a monster of iniquity; *Wagner contra mundum*, he always right, the world always wrong";—and yet a conqueror in the end, arousing the wonder of mankind!

But, if he holds the man morally debased to low estate, our author does not hesitate to exalt Wagner the artist to the highest realm of music. Based on the fullest knowledge of Wagner's compositions, Mr. Newman's detailed analyses of them are masterly and his appreciation of this marvelous music is as profound and moving as it is sympathetic. His presentment of Wagner as artist is altogether one of the best that has yet been made in any language. This part of his book is invaluable. He has studied the early works of Wagner's formative period as carefully as the masterpieces of his maturity, and he has new and illuminating

comments on all of them. He finds that "Wagner's is the only imagination in music that can be compared with Shakespeare's in dramatic fertility and comprehensiveness. It pours itself over the whole surface of a work, into every nook and cranny of it. It is a vast mind, infinite in its sympathies, protean in its creative power. For sheer drastic incisiveness of theme he has not his equal in all music; each vision instinctively, without an effort, finds its own inevitable utterance. In the works of his great period every motive has a physiognomy as distinct from all others as the face of any human being is distinct from all other faces. The motives are unforgettable once we have heard them. They depict their subject once for all. . . . They are what they are because they combine in the fullest measure and in impeccable proportion the two great preservatives of all artistic work,—a luminous personal vision and consummate style."

Sir Charles Villiers Stanford, born in Dublin in 1852, one of the most distinguished of living musicians, composer, conductor, professor of music at Cambridge University, is coming to America in June (if travel from England is not prevented by the German submarines) to conduct his "Irish Symphony" at the Norfolk (Conn.) festival and to produce a new pianoforte concerto. A certain interest of timeliness therefore attaches to a new volume of reminiscences just published by him which he calls "Pages from an Unwritten Diary."<sup>2</sup> Musically inclined people will find it interesting on other grounds also, delightfully entertaining in fact, for the book is a veritable mine of wit and anecdote. This Irish composer's experiences in the pursuit of his art and among his fellow artists have been many and varied and interesting, and his pleasure in narrating them is conveyed to the reader of his pages. Not only are the stories he tells of the famous people he has known and met good stories, but his recollections of Liszt, Wagner, Brahms, Joachim, Hans von Bülow, Dvořák, Verdi, Tennyson, Sir Henry Irving, Leighton, Millais, and others, are a real contribution to the world's knowledge of them.

Studies on "East Christian Paintings in the Freer Collection"<sup>3</sup> are published by Charles R. Morey, of Princeton University, as a volume of the "Humanistic Series" in the University of Michigan Studies. For those who are especially interested in early Christian painting, it would be difficult to find a book of more interest or beauty. The colored plates and the heliotype plates, made by the Heliotype Company of Boston, reproduce the manuscript, fresco, and miniature paintings with startling fidelity, thus enabling the student to make critical judgment without the sight of the actual originals.

<sup>2</sup> Pages from an Unwritten Diary. By Sir Charles Villiers Stanford. Longmans, Green. 318 pp., ill. \$3.50.

<sup>3</sup> East Christian Paintings in the Freer Collection. By Charles R. Morey. General Library, University of Michigan. Macmillan. 86 pp. \$2.50.

<sup>1</sup> Wagner as Man and Artist. By Ernest Newman. Dutton. 386 pp., ill. \$3.50.



# CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

## *Books Relating to the War*

**Germany and England.** By Friedrich von Bernhardt. Dillingham. 93 pp. 50 cents.

In this little book, the first written by General von Bernhardt since the war began, the assertion is made by the distinguished German authority that England, as well as France and Belgium, violated the neutrality agreement before a single German soldier set foot on Belgian soil. General von Bernhardt also maintains that what Germany is seeking is not world dominion, but a free, autonomous development alongside of England and America.

**The King, the Kaiser and Irish Freedom.** By James K. McGuire. New York: The Devin-Adair Company. 313 pp. \$1.35.

An enthusiastic pro-German utterance by an American of Irish descent,—a former mayor of Syracuse, N. Y. This is said to be the only book favoring the German cause that has thus far been written by an American not of German extraction.

**Origins and Destiny of Imperial Britain.** By J. A. Cramb. Dutton. 276 pp. \$1.50.

Although written and delivered at the time of the Boer War, the lectures composing this volume deal with problems that are now recognized as questions of the hour, not only for England, but for the world.

**The World Crisis and the Way to Peace.** By E. Ellsworth Shumaker. Putnam. 110 pp. 75 cents.

A plea to the United States Government to take the lead among the neutral nations in a "sympathetic, but firm intervention."

**The Anglo-German Problem.** By Charles Sarolea. Nelson. 384 pp. \$1.00.

This book commands our attention as having been written two years ago by a Belgian resident in Scotland. At that time many of us did not believe there was an Anglo-German problem, but events have largely fulfilled the author's predictions.

**King Albert's Book: A Tribute to the Belgian King and People from Representative Men and Women Throughout the World.** New York: Hearst's International Library Company. 188 pp., ill. \$1.50.

It is well within bounds to say that no occupant of a modern throne has ever received such a testimonial of popular regard as this. The signatures are not only those of "representative men and women throughout the world," as the title indicates, but of many leaders of public opinion in democratic countries, who are not in the habit of offering "tributes" to royalty. This spontaneous recognition of true kingliness, rather than of kingship, makes "King Albert's Book" unique.

**The Peace and America.** By Hugo Münsterberg. Appletons. 276 pp. \$1.

This is a sequel to Professor Münsterberg's "The War and America." In this new volume the author looks forward to the territorial and other arrangements that will accompany the conclusion of peace. As a strong advocate of Germany's claims, he writes with the manifest intention of impressing American public opinion with the futility and injustice of insistence upon humiliating terms to Germany.

**Kaiser, Krupp and Kultur.** By Theodore Andrea Cook. Scribners. 178 pp. 75 cents.

A reprint of editorial articles that appeared in the *Field*, of London, from August 8 to December 26, 1914. These articles are arranged in the order of their appearance and, as the author states, "may have a certain interest as a fairly consecutive recital of what many men were thinking about from week to week during the progress of the war." We may accept them as a fair index of British public opinion during the early months of the conflict.

**Russia and the World.** By Stephen Graham. Macmillan. 305 pp. \$2.

This volume includes "a study of the war and a statement of the world problems that now confront Russia and Great Britain." The author has spent much time for several years with the Russian people, particularly the peasants in out-of-the-way districts. When the war broke out he was in Altai, a Cossack village on the frontier of Mongolia, one thousand miles away from the Siberian railway. When the mobilization came to this far-off corner of Russia, the people did not know with what nation or nations war had been declared. It was several days before they learned the name of the enemy, or in what direction the Cossack troops were to march.

## *Sociology, Economics, Politics*

**Socialism as the Sociological Ideal.** By Floyd J. Melvin. Sturgis & Walton. 216 pp. \$1.25.

An attempt to find the basis of modern Socialism "in the general social situation," rather than in Marxian economics.

**Practical Banking With a Survey of the Federal Reserve Act.** By Ralph Scott Harris. Houghton Mifflin. 309 pp. \$1.75.

An admirable description, in untechnical language, of the processes of modern banking. The book opens up the whole subject to the intelligent layman.

**Lower Living Costs in Cities.** By Clyde Lyndon King. Appletons. 355 pp. \$1.50.

The costs of food, housing, education, public utilities, and health are analyzed in this book and a constructive program is suggested for the reduction of such costs.

**Keeping Up With Rising Costs.** By Wheeler Sammons. Chicago: A. W. Shaw Company. 192 pp. \$2.

The author of this book had a unique starting point in the form of a body of facts regarding the costs of doing business derived from 1500 distributive concerns scattered throughout the country. He makes many practical suggestions to business men.

**Economic Cycles: Their Law and Cause.** By Henry Ludwell Moore. Macmillan. 149 pp. \$2.

A graphic exposition of the cycle of rainfall and its relation to crop production and thereby to general prices.

**The Political Science of John Adams: A Study in the Theory of Mixed Government and the Bicameral System.** By Correa Moylan Walsh. Putnam's. 374 pp. \$2.25.

A critical review of the opinions held by John Adams, who was one of the leading advocates of the bicameral system as engrafted in our national and State legislatures.

**The System as Uncovered by the San Francisco Graft Prosecution.** By Franklin Hichborn. San Francisco: James H. Barry Company. 464 pp. \$1.50.

This book discloses the forces that were responsible for the corruption of San Francisco's municipal government and shows how those forces, even after attack, proved more powerful than the city itself.

**America in Ferment.** By Paul Leland Hawthorth. Bobbs Merrill. 477 pp. \$1.50.

A presentation, rather than a discussion, of the progressive movement in American politics.

**The Progressive Movement.** By Benjamin Parke De Witt. Macmillan. 376 pp. \$1.50.

Recognizing the fact that the Progressive movement is broader than any political party, the author of this work undertakes to interpret the fundamental principles of the movement, considering, first, the causes of its growth and its origin and development in each of the political parties, and then outlining such important reform measures as the control of corporations, direct legislation, mothers' pensions, minimum wage, commission government, and the city manager's plan in their relations to progressivism as a whole.

**Government for the People.** By Thomas H. Reed. Huebsch. 265 pp. \$1.50.

The Associate Professor of Government in the University of California has come into close contact with the political discussions that have, in recent years, agitated the Pacific Coast States. In this book he describes the workings of democracy in all its phases. He finds the place of political parties, discusses the method by which candidates should be nominated, considers the organization of legislatures, and inquires into many other problems of State and local administration.

**The Heart of Blackstone.** By Nanette B. Paul. New York: Abingdon Press. 247 pp. \$1.

The author, who holds a Lectureship on Law in

Washington College, Washington, D. C., has essayed the difficult task of making the common law intelligible to the general reader. Her work is highly commended by Justice Thomas H. Anderson, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, who praises "the author's rare power of condensation, orderly division of the subjects treated, and their logical developments."

**Social Evolution.** By Benjamin Kidd. Macmillan. 404 pp. \$1.50.

A revised edition of a work that has been, perhaps, as widely read as any modern book in the field of sociology, with the possible exception of Henry George's "Progress and Poverty."

**Railway Conductors: A Study in Organized Labor.** By Edwin Clyde Robbins. Longmans, Green. 183 pp. \$1.50.

This monograph is "intended neither as a denunciation nor as a eulogy of the organization of which it treats." "It is not even a criticism; rather it is a recital of facts giving the aims, purposes, and activities of the order, based upon official records and supplemented by such explanation as has seemed necessary to connect the studies with the problem of organized labor as a whole." The study is divided into three parts: (1) History and form of organization; (2) Trade regulating activities; (3) Beneficiary features.

**Emile Durkheim's Contributions to Sociological Theory.** By Charles Elmer Gehlke. Longmans, Green. 188 pp. \$1.50.

A review of the sociological studies of Professor Emile Durkheim, who, since 1906, has held the chair of Sociology and the Science of Education in the Faculty of Letters at the University of Paris.

**An Introduction to the Study of Government.** By Lucius Hudson Holt. Macmillan. 388 pp. \$2.

Lieutenant-Colonel Holt, U.S.A., who holds the chair of English and History at West Point, has written a text-book somewhat narrower in scope than Woodrow Wilson's book on "The State," but covering a wider field than the average text-book on the government of the United States.

**The Panama Canal and International Trade Competition.** By Lincoln Hutchinson. Macmillan. 284 pp. \$1.75.

This volume is not so much a compendium of trade facts as a survey and analysis of trade tendencies, with reference to the opening of the new canal route. A wonderful array of facts is presented, however, by way of illustration. Readers of President Wheeler's article on the canal in the February REVIEW will recall his references to Mr. Hutchinson's work.

**Carranza and Mexico.** By Carlo de Fornaro. Kennerley. 242 pp. \$1.25.

The author of this work was for several years editor and proprietor of a well-known newspaper in Mexico City. Statements in his book, "Diaz, Czar of Mexico," caused his sentence to prison, and he has ever since been interested in the cause of Mexican independence and has an exceptional acquaintance with various leaders in that cause.



## Reference Books

**The American Year Book: A Record of Events and Progress 1914.** Edited by Francis G. Wickware. Appleton. 862 pp. \$3.

All writers, and especially journalists, are indebted to the American Year Book for its yearly record of events and progress in every department. This useful annual has now reached its fifth issue. Two departments, "Population and Immigration" and "Prevention, Correction, and Charity," have been consolidated with the department, "Social and Economic Problems." The order of the remaining departments is unchanged, but there has been some revision of the subdivision of topics, while the scope of the work remains as at first, including not only political and statistical material, but many scientific topics.

**The American Jewish Year Book 5675, 1914-1915.** Edited by Herman Bernstein. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America. 581 pp. \$1.

In the current volume of this publication the Beilis affair, which, in the opinion of Jews everywhere, has constituted the darkest tragedy of their race in recent years, has a separate record of seventy pages. There is also a noteworthy article by Julius H. Greenstone on "Jewish Education in the United States." The usual statistical and historical chronicle completes the volume.

**Exporters' Encyclopedia, 1915.** New York: Exporters' Encyclopædia Company. 1,152 pp. \$7.50.

This volume contains the essential facts relating to shipments from the United States for every country in the world. The publication is now in its eleventh year, and is generally accepted as a standard authority.

**National Education Association: Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1914.** Ann Arbor, Mich.: National Education Association of the United States. 928 pp. \$2.

The published proceedings of the National Education Association constitute a volume of much value for reference purposes. The topics discussed at the St. Paul meeting, held in July last year, cover an unusual range of educational interests.

**Heroes and Heroines of Fiction: Modern Prose and Poetry.** By William S. Walsh. Lippincott. 391 pp. \$3.

Mr. Walsh has classified, analyzed, and criticized famous characters and famous names in novels, romances, poems, and dramas. The result is an unexampled collection and arrangement of materials not otherwise easily accessible.

**The Mystery of the Oriental Rug.** By Dr. G. Griffin Lewis. Lippincott. 102 pp., ill. \$1.50.

A convenient handbook not too large to be carried in the pocket, that gives all information desired by lovers of rugs who have not the leisure to be exhaustively informed on the subject. The contents discuss the "mystery of the rug," the prayer rug, characteristics of different varieties, and descriptions of plates.

## Chemistry

**General Chemistry.** By Lyman C. Newell. Heath. 174 pp. Illustrated. \$1.25.

This book includes not only the principles of chemistry, but also numerous practical applications, the author's chief purpose being to set forth an abundance of practical applications in connection with each principle expounded.

**Chemistry in America.** By Edgar Fahs Smith. Appletons. 351 pp. Illustrated. \$2.50.

Professor Smith has been prepared to prepare for publication the unique materials related to the history of chemistry in the United States which he has gathered in the course of many years by lecturing on the subject to his graduate students at the University of Pennsylvania. In this volume are comprised the life histories of such eminent chemists as Wolcott Gibbs, F. A. Genth, J. Lawrence Smith, Lea, Cooke, and Willard Gibbs.

**Chemistry.** By Raphael Meldola. Holt. 255 pp. 50 cents.

An excellent popular survey of the subject by the Professor of Chemistry in the Finsbury Technical College.

**Chemistry for Nurses.** By Reuben Ottenberg. Macmillan. 141 pp. \$1.

The development of medical science has made necessary the teaching of chemistry to nurses. The present volume is the first simple, yet modern, text-book written to meet this special need. Heretofore nurses anxious for information have been compelled to go either to text-books written for medical students, and too difficult for the average nurse, or to school text-books which naturally paid no attention to many subjects especially important to nurses.

**Chemistry of Familiar Things.** By Samuel Schmucker Sadtler. Lippincott. 320 pp. Illustrated. \$1.75.

A non-technical treatment of such familiar subjects as air, water, metals, rocks, soil, food, and textiles, designed for those who have not had opportunities for even an elementary study of the science, but who are interested in scientific matters and wish an exposition of the every-day phases of the subject. It is well illustrated and far more attractive to all classes of readers than the usual text-book of chemistry.

**A Study of Foods.** By Ruth A. Wardall and Edna Noble White. Ginn. 174 pp., ill. 70 cents.

A manual of food values based on laboratory experiments.

**Principles of Cooking.** By Emma Conley. American Book Company. 206 pp., ill. 52 cents.

A text-book in cooking and elementary food study for secondary and vocational schools.

**How to Cook and Why.** By Elizabeth Condit and Jessie A. Long. Harpers. 249 pp., ill. \$1.

A book designed to meet the needs of the high-

school girl as well as of the average housekeeper. The scientific principles underlying cookery are presented in simple, untechnical language.

## ***Hygiene and Medicine***

**Child Training as an Exact Science.** By George W. Jacoby, M.D. Funk and Wagnalls. 384 pp. \$1.62.

An exceptional book prepared for teacher, parent, and physician on the mental, moral, and physical aspects of child training. The education and care of imbeciles and idiots receive special consideration.

**Mothers and Children.** By Dorothy Canfield Fisher. Henry Holt. 285 pp. \$1.25.

Charming, friendly advice to mothers, with wise precept and not a little philosophy on the adjustments of family relationships.

**Care and Education of Crippled Children.** By Edith Reeves. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 252 pp. \$2.

A study made under the direction of Dr. Hastings Hart, head of the Sage Foundations Child-Helping Department. It gives in detail the work accomplished in thirty-seven hospitals and other institutions solely devoted to the care and education of crippled children, and also that of twenty-seven others which do combined work for crippled children and others.

**An Ethical Problem.** By Albert Leffingwell. New York: C. P. Farrell. 369 pp. \$2.50.

The former president of the American Humane Association sets forth in this volume the position taken by those more moderate opponents of vivisection who are ready to admit that there are certain methods of research "which involve no animal suffering, and which are of scientific utility." Dr. Leffingwell admits that within certain careful limitations these methods would seem to be justifiable. He opposes the ideals of the modern physiological laboratory so far as those ideals favor the practise of vivisection in secrecy and without legal regulation. The ethical problem, in his view, concerns not the prevention of all experimentation upon animals, but rather the abolition of its cruelty, its secrecy, and its abuse.

**The Cancer Problem.** By William Seaman Bainbridge. Macmillan. 534 pp. Illustrated. \$4.

This work is an attempt to supply the information now demanded by those who are asking "Is cancer contagious?" "Is it infectious?" "May it be inherited?" "Can it be prevented?" "Can it

be cured?" "Is it on the increase?" It is, in fact, a specialist's summary of what is known to-day by his profession concerning cancer.

**Infection and Resistance.** By Hans Zinsser. Macmillan. 546 pp. \$3.50.

An exposition of the biological phenomena underlying the occurrence of infection and the recovery of the animal body from infectious disease. This volume makes accessible a large body of knowledge that has been revealed only by laboratory study. It is intended primarily for the undergraduate medical student.

## ***Manuals and Handbooks***

**Fundamental Sources of Efficiency.** By Fletcher Durell. Lippincott. 368 pp. \$2.50.

The head of the mathematical department of Lawrenceville School has analyzed the various forms and sources of efficiency into a few elemental principles. He has also inserted groups of exercises which may be used to advantage in classes where the principles of efficiency are taught.

**Practical Cinematography and Its Application.** By Frederick A. Talbot. Lippincott. 262 pp. Illustrated. \$1.

This book is intended to assist the amateur as distinguished from the salaried professional worker who is attracted towards cinematography. It is a non-technical exposition of the subject.

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# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—MAKING INVESTMENT EASY

**N**EXT to the abolition of minimum prices on the New York Stock Exchange, on March 31, it is questionable whether any development along investment lines during the month under review was more important than the notable increase of brokers specializing in odd lots and partial-payment plans. Technically an odd lot is any number of shares of stock under 100, but in common parlance the expression most often refers to one, two, three, five or ten shares. Partial-payment plans are methods of buying stocks and bonds on instalments, or regular, periodical payments.

Although speculation in stocks had been at a low ebb for a number of years, with its first appreciable revival at the beginning of April, 1915, there was during all this period a steady increase in the investment absorption of small lots of stock. Apparently while "bulls" and "bears" and old-time plungers languished in unprofitable idleness, small investors continued to buy for income. The closing down of many of those parasites of finance, the bucket-shops, has contributed to turn an ever-swelling stream of small purchasers toward the Stock Exchange. Brokers have begun to realize that loss of free-spending speculators might be almost made up for by the growing multitude of small investors. It had long been the custom of brokers to turn their orders for less than 100 shares of stock over to specialists known as odd-lot brokers. These odd-lot men had no relations with the public, but were merely dealers who bought stock wholesale in 100 and perhaps even 1000 share lots, and broke their certificates up into two, seven, sixteen, or any other number of shares desired by an ordinary commission broker who had an order from a customer to fill.

An odd-lot wholesaler to be successful must have many partners on the floor of the Stock Exchange. One firm has five members owning seats, and gives desk room in its offices to seven other Stock Exchange members, who while not partners probably spend most of their time working for the firm. Still another firm has six partners who are Exchange members, and gives desk room to four others. Now it was observed

during the years in which speculation declined and most brokers were without commissions, that while other firms came and went, the six or seven big odd-lot houses did not sell a single one of their memberships on the Exchange. With eleven members, or other brokers having desk room, a firm must earn enormous sums just to pay interest on its investment in seats, a sum which, according to the price of seats a few years ago, would be close to \$1,000,000.

Brokers pondering on these facts began to compute the volume of odd-lot business, and recently discovered that it amounts to more than 30 per cent. of the total. Thus there has been a rush into the odd-lot business. Not only has keen competition sprung up in the wholesale end of the industry, but a constantly increasing number of brokers, including some of the strongest firms in the financial district, have announced their intention of specializing in the retail end, or in odd lots for the public. Previously a man often felt that his broker was doing him a favor to buy two or three shares of stock, but brokers are now trying to dispel this idea, and charge \$1.25 for nine shares or any number less, whereas for ten shares or more the charge is only twelve and a half cents a share. Moreover, in order to stimulate this small business brokers have been devising partial-payment methods of buying stocks, by which an investor with no more than \$10 can make a start. The idea is to pay something down, and then a fixed, regular sum on the first day of every following month until full payment is made. Here are the actual terms adopted by most firms:

	Per Share	
	First Payment	Monthly Payment
Stocks selling under \$30 .....	\$10	\$2
Stocks selling from \$30 to \$50...	15	3
Stocks selling from \$50 to \$100..	20	5
Stocks selling from \$100 to \$150..	30	5
Stocks selling from \$150 to \$200..	50	5
Stocks selling above \$200.....	Special terms	
	Per Bond	
\$100 Bonds.....	\$10	\$5
\$500 Bonds.....	50	25
\$1000 Bonds.....	100	50

The customer receives all dividends and interest paid on the stocks or bonds, and pays to the broker interest at 6 per cent. on unpaid instalments. But of course the customer's debt to the broker gradually and steadily diminishes. Every two-dollar or five-dollar bill paid in brings the investor that much nearer to complete ownership of a standard share of stock or a good bond. When the last payment is made the stock is transferred into the customer's name and shipped to him. Instead of drawing down his dividends meanwhile he can credit them to his indebtedness and thus wipe it out all the sooner. A fixed amount of capital goes farther by this method than by outright purchase. There is steady pressure to save, constant prodding month by month.

One firm alone has opened 3000 partial-payment accounts. Until securities are fully paid for, a firm reserves the right to hypothecate (borrow upon them) to any extent and at any time it pleases. Thus it is essential for an investor to deal only with firms of high standing and ample resource. Presumably a conservatively managed brokerage firm would attempt to separate to some extent its bank loans upon ordinary margin operations from those on completely paid up, partial-payment accounts. But while the governing authorities of the Stock Exchange scrutinize with the utmost care all partial-payment systems, there is no law or regulation, State or otherwise, which compels a broker to separate his bank loans. It must be understood also that the broker has a perfect right to call upon a customer for payments in addition to those originally agreed upon in case prices should decline beyond all previous expectation and reasonable provision.

In actual practise, however, the partial-payment method of buying stocks and bonds has proved safe enough. No Stock Exchange broker has failed because of any connection with this business. Indeed it is doubtful if partial-payment buyers have been forced to take losses even in the disturbed markets of the last year. Most partial-payment plans contemplate full payment in about one year's time. If the customer feels that he has bought a stock which is likely to prove erratic in price or that his broker is not as strong as the Bank of England, he always has the alternative after making payments for a few months, of instructing his broker to sell half the stock and deliver the certificates for the remainder. That is, one is always

able to obtain complete possession of the stock by selling enough to make up the full payment.

Fortunately brokers have been careful in confining their partial-payment business to strong securities. Thus the danger of loss has been greatly minimized. Brokers have recognized that to make the plan permanently successful they must give to it as much of an investment character as possible, and prevent its use for buying speculative stocks. Besides, either because of a definite policy on the part of brokers, or because of a spread of financial knowledge among investors generally, partial-payment buyers have usually spread their investment out over several different stocks, thus providing against heavy loss. If for any reason a part-payment buyer cannot meet his monthly instalments, he is not wiped out by any means, but merely becomes an ordinary margin buyer, except that he is in a stronger position than the old-time margin speculator because the initial payment is larger. Finally, it is only fair to state that there is an increasing disposition among stock brokers to make agreements that none of the partners shall speculate and that the firm as a whole shall take no speculative position.

#### *Speculation Once More*

The early part of April witnessed a revival of activity in stocks without parallel in the last few years. Apparently speculation had been so long repressed and dammed up that an outburst was inevitable. It has been asserted many times in recent years that speculation had died, never to be resurrected, but the confidence with which that statement was made found least favor with students of financial history.

As nearly as could be detected at the time of writing, April's tumultuous upheaval in share prices, while not lacking in reprehensible and dangerous features of excitement and recklessness, was in the main due to natural causes. An excess of idle bank funds has always sooner or later stirred up speculation. This is especially true when the level of quoted values, gauged by all the standards of the past, is low. The mere fact that speculation had so long been in abeyance was bound in course of time to result in broken barriers. Finally, and most important, the sudden rise of America to financial and economic preëminence was certain to be reflected for the time being in soaring stock prices whatever the sober aftermath might prove to be.



## II.—INVESTMENT INQUIRIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 632. THE DISCOUNT FUNCTIONS OF THE FEDERAL RESERVE BANK

This is one of the most prosperous sections of the country, and seems to have felt the effects of the European war as little as any other section. Yet money is very scarce and obtainable only at unusually high rates. Can you assign me any good reason why any financial institution should refuse to buy good notes and bonds in line with their charter rights, and of unquestioned security, and at a figure that would net a good profit in the exercise of the rediscount privileges with the Federal Reserve Banks? Is it not a function of these regional banks to take practically any amount of approved collaterals for legitimate investment, thus aiding to stimulate industrial activity in all branches?

Your question about the functions of the Federal Reserve Banks can best be answered by a quotation from the Federal Reserve Act, defining the powers of these institutions. Section 13 of the Act, reading, in part, as follows, indicates the limitations that are put upon the regional banks in the exercise of their privileges of rediscount:

"Upon the indorsement of any of its member banks, with a waiver of demand, notice and protest by such bank, any Federal Reserve Bank may discount notes, drafts and bills of exchange arising out of actual commercial transactions; that is, notes, drafts and bills of exchange issued or drawn for agricultural, industrial or commercial purposes, or the proceeds of which have been used, or are to be used, for such purposes, the Federal Reserve Board to have the right to determine or define the character of the paper thus eligible for discount. . . . Nothing in this Act contained shall be construed to prohibit such notes, drafts or bills of exchange, secured by staple agricultural products, or other goods, wares, or merchandise, from being eligible for such discount; but such definition shall not include notes, drafts or bills covering merely investments or issued or drawn for the purpose of carrying or trading in stocks, bonds or other investment securities, except bonds and notes of the Government of the United States. Notes, drafts and bills admitted to discount under the terms of this paragraph must have a maturity at the time of discount of not more than ninety days: Provided, that notes, drafts and bills drawn or issued for agricultural purposes or based upon live stock and having a maturity not exceeding six months may be discounted in an amount to be limited to a percentage of the capital of the Federal Reserve Bank, to be ascertained and fixed by the Federal Reserve Board. . . .

"The aggregate of such notes and bills bearing the signature or indorsement of any one person, company, firm or corporation rediscounted for any one bank shall at no time exceed ten per centum of the unimpaired capital and surplus of said bank; but this restriction shall not apply to the discount of bills of exchange drawn in good faith against actually existing values."

We have italicized some of the more important parts of this section to indicate that the powers of the Federal banks in the matter of rediscounts are not as broad as you appear to have believed.

One of the new powers of national banks in the Federal Reserve system ought, perhaps, to be referred to in connection with your inquiry; namely, the power to make loans on farm lands. In this connection, the Federal Reserve Board has recently announced the following regulations:

"National banks not located in central reserve cities may now legally make loans secured by

mortgages on real estate within the following limitations:

"1. The real estate security must be farm land.  
"2. It must be improved.

"3. There must be no prior lien; in other words, the lending bank must hold an absolute first mortgage or deed of trust.

"4. The property must be located in the same Federal Reserve District as the bank making the loan.

"5. The amount of the loan must not exceed 50 per cent. of the actual value of the property upon which it is secured.

"6. The loan must be for a period not longer than five years.

"7. The maximum amount of loans which a National bank may make on real estate under the terms of the Act shall be limited to an amount not in excess of one-third of its time deposits at the time of making the loan, and not in excess of one-third of its average time deposits during the preceding calendar year. . . ."

### No. 633. THE STOCKS OF FORMER STANDARD OIL SUBSIDIARIES

I have been thinking of buying some of the Standard Oil subsidiary stocks, and am sending you a list on which I should like to have you indicate the issues that are best for investment.

We are advised by one of the leading specialists in these stocks that, generally speaking, the issues of the refining and marketing companies, especially the big ones, are the safest from the investment point of view. These include the stocks of companies like the Standard Oil of New Jersey, Standard Oil of New York, Standard Oil of Indiana, and Standard Oil of California.

Following this group, there is a group of smaller refining companies such as Atlantic Refining, Standard Oil of Ohio, Standard Oil of Kansas, and Solar Refining, all of which appear to have satisfactory earning capacity, but whose stocks seem to be governed by less stable market conditions, making them, like the stocks of the marketing companies such as Standard Oil of Kentucky, Standard Oil of Nebraska, and Continental Oil, less desirable for the average investor. In the group of the smaller refining companies, one might mention the Galena-Signal Oil Company, whose preferred stock is regarded by the experts as exceptionally safe for a security of its type and class.

The business of companies like the Ohio Oil Company, South Penn Oil Company, Prairie Oil & Gas Company, and Washington Oil Company is that of producing oil, and, of course, the element of speculation is very much larger in this phase of the industry. It is large also in connection with the so-called "pipe line" stocks, on account of the fact that no one knows whether or not the Interstate Commerce Commission may compel that group of companies to make drastic reductions in their rates. Of this particular group, the stocks of companies like the New York Transit Company, National Transit Company, Buckeye Pipe Line, and Indiana Pipe Line seem to be generally considered the best.

Union Tank Line falls in a still different category, the business of this company being the operation of tank cars over the various railroads. Experts consider this stock fairly safe.

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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**PRESIDENT NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY PRESENTING  
THOMAS A. EDISON WITH A CIVIC FORUM HONOR MEDAL AT  
CARNEGIE HALL, NEW YORK, ON MAY 6**

(This is the second medal awarded by the Civic Forum for distinguished public service, the first having been conferred upon Colonel George W. Goethals in 1914. In presenting the medal to Mr. Edison, President Butler said: "I place in your hands a gold medal for distinguished human service and the greatest scientific achievements. It is not awarded for any one discovery, however striking, or any one act, however important. It is awarded in recognition of a great public career,—a career which places your name and fame among the very highest in the rolls of human history.")

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LI

NEW YORK, JUNE, 1915

No. 6

## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Momentous  
Doings in  
May*

It had long been predicted that May would usher in a series of events of tremendous moment in the great conflict of nations. Lord Kitchener, in his terse and laconic fashion, had said that the war would begin in May. Mr. Simonds, whose lucid and graphic narration of last month's fighting appears in this number of the REVIEW, shows with what furious aggression Germany and her allies turned upon their foes after having seemed for a month or two to be on the defensive, with the odds ever increasing against them. There is nothing conclusive, however, in the alternate give-and-take along the intrenched lines of the western war theater; nor is the fate of Galicia settled by recent Russian reverses. From the larger standpoint of history-making, it turned out that the most important chapters for the month of May were being written at Washington and at Rome.

*Rome as the  
Critical  
Center*

There were stormy scenes in Italy as the decision hung in the balance whether or not the kingdom would go to war against Austria and Germany. Every day saw military preparations more complete, and as the time approached for the assembling of parliament on the 20th it seemed almost certain that the Allies would, before the end of the month, have Italy fighting with them. Russian reverses had made Italian aid seem more desirable than in previous months. Austria had come down from her haughty position, and had offered concessions of territory that might six months ago have been accepted. But the dream of an enlarged Italy has been growing into a hard, practical program; and the war party would no longer listen to compromises that only a little time ago would have more than satisfied their real expectations. Upon Italy's decision seemed to hang that of Rumania, with the increasing probability that Bulgaria and Greece would be impelled by their interest in the final adjust-

ment of Balkan questions to take active part against the Turks, and thus,—indirectly at least,—to fight Austria and Germany and to aid Russia and the Allies. Italy's first formal step was the "denunciation," on May 4, of her treaty with Austria-Hungary by which the famous Triple Alliance had been maintained since 1882. It is now known that Italy based her claims on Austria for territorial concessions on a provision of this treaty which forbade any attempt on the part of either country to change the status of the Balkan States without the consent of the other. Austria-Hungary violated this proviso last summer. The Italian Parliament met at Rome on May 20, and by overwhelming majorities conferred on the government, headed by Premier Salandra, full power to make war. On May 23 war was declared.



THE AWAKENING OF ITALY

PRINCE VON BULOW (to Italy): "Stop, stop, Signora! You're supposed to be mesmerized—not mobilized!"

From *Punch* (London)





WILL COLUMBIA BE DRAGGED IN?  
From the *Herald* (New York)

More absorbing to us in America, however, was our own new and unanticipated attitude toward the European situation. This was due to the sinking, on May 7, by a torpedo from a German submarine, off the coast of Ireland, of the great British passenger steamer, the *Lusitania*, of the Cunard Line, which had sailed from New York on Saturday, May 1. There had been German warnings against sailing on this ship, but her passengers felt secure, and many of these were Americans. Nearly 2000 persons were on board, of whom about three-quarters were passengers of all classes. About two-thirds of the total number were drowned, including more than 100 Americans. A considerably smaller number of Americans were saved. Intense feeling was aroused throughout the United States. Many newspapers, and many individual leaders of public opinion, expressed themselves in terms of emotion. The Government at Washington was urged to "act" instantly and without a moment's delay. The newspapers that are usually most sober and responsible took the lead in what seemed to be a demand for immediate declaration of war against Germany. The mood was one of unrestrained anger on account of what was felt on all hands to be a diabolical outrage. It was not a reasoning mood, nor one that could be trusted to make wise decisions as to what course should

be pursued. To plunge into war would bring untold misery and supply no remedy. It would victimize the innocent without harming the guilty.

*The President's Poise*

President Wilson kept his head while the storm raged furiously about him, and while the victims of a kind of temporary mania were screaming at him to do something, no matter what, to relieve their passionate anger. On Monday, the 10th, President Wilson made a speech at Philadelphia, to several thousand foreign-born citizens who were completing their probationary term and becoming naturalized. His tone was serene; he preached the doctrine of good-will and a large humanity; and he said nothing at all about the *Lusitania*. His poise and right-mindedness had a good effect upon a country that had been unduly excited by headlines and insane editorials. Three days after this Philadelphia appearance, the President sent a note to Germany. The course to take had been carefully considered in cabinet meeting, but the President faced the responsibility and himself prepared the message that was transmitted to Berlin by our Department of State. The language of the note was courteous and friendly. Its real object was to induce Germany to change her policy of submarine warfare against commercial ships, and particularly against those carrying neutral and other non-combatant passengers.

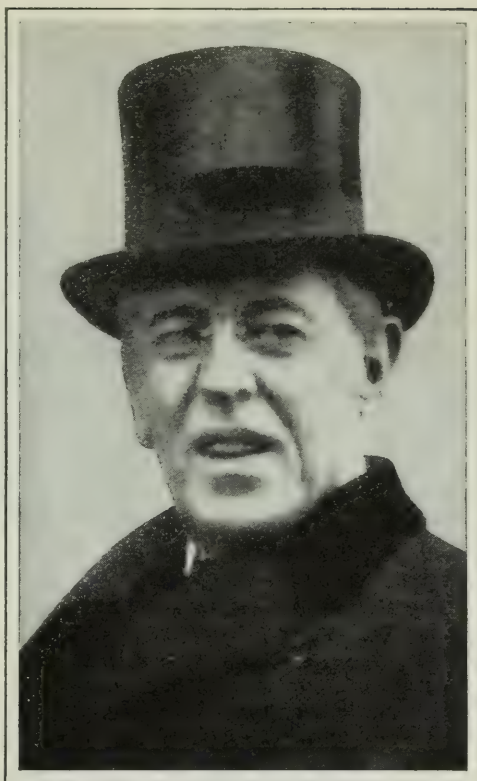
*The Note to Germany and Its Results*

The President's note was printed throughout the United States on the 14th, and it fully satisfied the newspapers that had been clamoring to have "something done." Everybody of sense, furthermore, felt that the President was entitled to loyal support, and that there must be no appearance of a divided country. But prudent and thoughtful men knew also that for the first time since Europe took up arms ten months ago we ourselves were facing the danger of being drawn into the conflict. And so there was an undertone of deep anxiety, and a profound desire that wise men should find ways to avert the unspeakable calamity of war. German statesmanship at that moment was intensely occupied in the final effort to pacify Italy and to keep that former ally from suddenly hurling a million fully equipped soldiers into the ranks of her foes. Intimations of various kinds appeared in the newspapers. The most hopeful thing of a practical sort, however, lay in the simple fact that Germany had ceased to sink merchant

ships. In the week before the climax was reached in the sinking of the *Lusitania*, Germany had sunk twenty-three merchant ships. In the two weeks following the *Lusitania*, none at all were sunk, excepting for one very small vessel, which was apparently due to a misunderstanding or a failure to receive orders on the part of the submarine captain. It was reported, moreover, with some air of probable authority, that Germany would abstain from her attacks on merchant ships, or would at least greatly modify and abate her policy, pending the negotiations with the United States that were made requisite by the President's note.

*The Submarine  
"Blockade"  
a Failure*

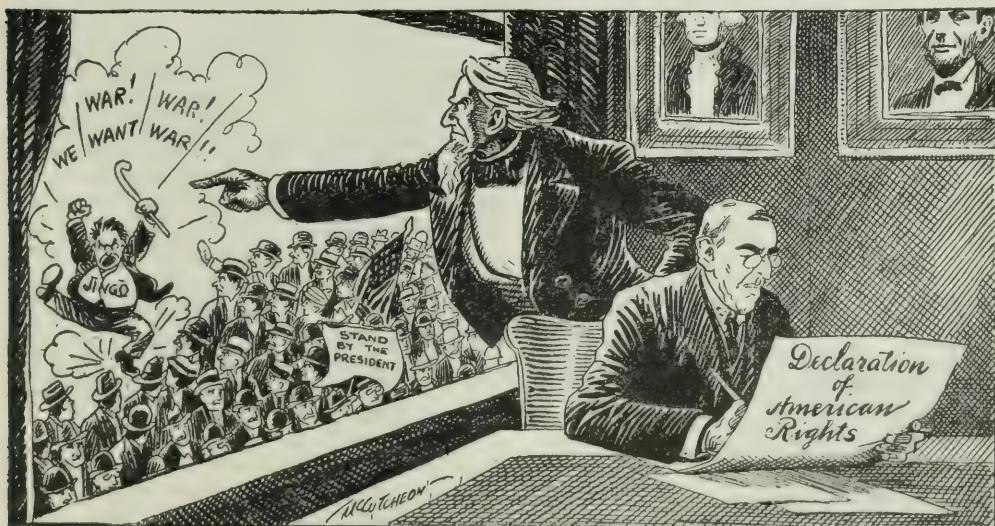
If this news should prove to be true,—that Germany had for the time being given up the practise of torpedoing merchant ships,—the atmosphere would, of course, be greatly cleared, and many things could be talked out frankly without recrimination or passion. In the first place, Germany's submarine blockade of England is a complete failure, because it has none of the effectiveness which could justify it as a war measure. It is not a true blockade, because it does not materially affect the movement of British commerce. In the period from February 18 (when the war zone decree went into effect) to May 7 (when the *Lusitania* was sunk), a total of ninety-one merchant ships had been sent to the bottom. Of these, moreover, as many as twenty were neutral ships. The great majority were small craft, many of them belonging to the deep-sea fishing fleet and known as "trawlers." British foreign trade, both imports and ex-



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PRESIDENT WILSON AS HE APPEARED WHEN REVIEWING THE FLEET IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH

ports, had steadily increased in volume during this period of so-called war blockade. Of British vessels alone there had been an average of more than 200 arrivals and departures for every day of the blockade period.



© John T. McCutcheon

THIS IS NOT THE TIME FOR JINGO-ISM

From the Tribune (Chicago)





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THE GREAT BRITISH TRANSATLANTIC LINER "LUSITANIA," WHICH WAS SUNK BY A GERMAN SUBMARINE, MAY 7

*Reasons for  
a Changed  
Policy*

A policy so dangerous and ruthless in its methods could only be justified by successful results,—which would not be measured in the number of ships sunk, but rather in the complete stoppage, or very large shrinkage, of British commerce. It had indeed been expected that German submarines would do everything in their power to strike at ships transporting troops and munitions of war across the Channel to France. This at least would have been real warfare. As it happens, the British navy has been able to protect this movement of men and supplies. The attack on merchant ships could be justified from a military standpoint only as it should result in the tying-up of British merchant vessels in their safe harbors, and the prevention of neutral vessels from sailing into the designated war zone. The policy as prosecuted thus far has involved a maximum of illegal annoyance to neutral shipping, and a further maximum of violation of humane principles,

—with an almost imperceptible minimum of war results to be urged in defense of the method. Germany should have enough sound practical sense completely to give up a policy that has not achieved anything at all in terms of warfare, while it has endangered relations with neutral countries. Remember that these strictures bear no relation to the use of submarines against armed ships.

*A Word  
to the  
Fair-minded*

There remains, however, a matter that neutrals on their part should be honest enough to take to heart. Conditions which cannot now be remedied have made several neutral countries,—the United States foremost of all,—a great source of military supply for the armies of the Allies. Making munitions of war has suddenly become the principal industry of the United States. The profits of this business have quickened the life of other industries, and have thus for the time being done much to lift America out of a period of business depression. It is the truth to say that the gains from this vast and ever-growing traffic have had a marked tendency to connect the American business world with the Allies in intimate relationship; and the new prosperity of the bankers and manufacturers has had its inevitable effect upon the tone of many of our leading newspapers. It is one thing to sympathize with the Allies because we hated the attack upon Belgium. It is a very different thing to drift into close and intimate association with their cause through the fact that they are spending not



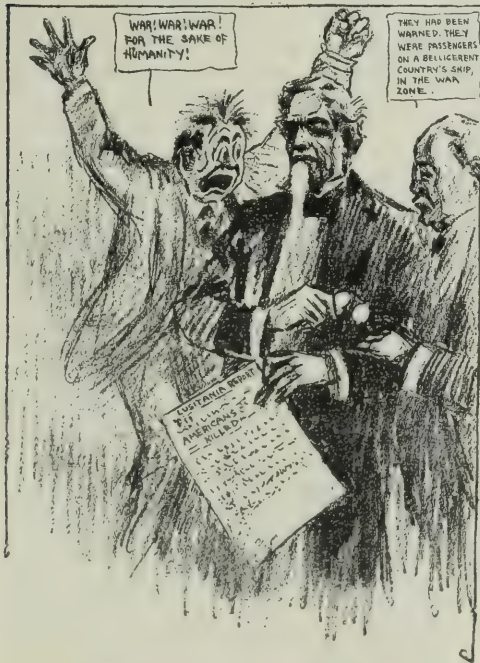
PRESIDENT WILSON TO THE SHRIEKERS: "SIT DOWN! YOU'RE ROCKING THE BOAT!"

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

merely hundreds but thousands of millions of dollars here in the purchase of supplies at profitable prices.

Passengers  
versus  
War Supplies

This is not an affair of our Government in any direct sense. But it has created an almost unprecedented situation, and Germany is highly sensitive to it. In these circumstances, the Germans have exceptional provocation for trying to intercept and destroy ships carrying munitions of war. And it would not be unreasonable to intimate to American travelers going to Europe that they ought not to ride on cargoes of guns and explosives intended for the destruction of German lives, and then expect our Government to follow them into war zones and guarantee their safety. We have an American line of passenger ships sailing to England. That line has announced that it will not mix up the traffic of carrying guns and powder with the traffic of carrying neutral passengers. It is fair to remember that the *Lusitania* belonged to the British naval reserve, that her officers were technically members of the British Navy, that she was carrying a large quantity of munitions of war when she sank, and that she had notoriously been carrying munitions of war on previous voyages. At the very time when she sailed there was an



THE ADVISORS OF UNCLE SAM  
From the *State Journal* (Columbus)



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DR. VON BETHMANN-HOLLWEG, CHANCELLOR OF  
THE GERMAN EMPIRE

(It was understood that he was preparing the answer to the American note)

American liner sailing from the same port of New York to the same destination in England, without war material in her hold and under the guarantee and protection of the American flag. It was not prudent under these circumstances for American travelers to sail under the flag of a belligerent.

The Traveler  
and His  
Risks

This is not to condone the act of the Germans. It was their privilege to capture the *Lusitania* if they could, and to sink ship and cargo after having safeguarded the lives of passengers and sailors. But American passengers, as is perfectly well known, needlessly chose to sail under the British flag in full knowledge of the risks. The present Admin-



istration, year before last and again last year, warned American citizens who were rightfully in Mexico to get out of that country because our Government could not conveniently protect them in their rights. And in like manner it told Americans intending to return there or to travel there that they would do so at their own risk. Many Americans in Mexico had everything at stake, and their hardships were very great. But it seemed better to have them get out of war zones than to have this country dragged into a war to avenge their wrongs or to protect their rights. Meanwhile it is true that several hundred American men, women, and children have lost their lives in Mexico, and that the incidents of outrage have been atrocious and unspeakable. Most of these people were the innocent victims of war barbarities from which they could not escape. The ordinary American pleasure-seeker, or the typically curious and restless transatlantic traveler, has no business in war zones anywhere; and the proper place for him is at home. At the very least, he should not ride on the ammunition wagon, and expect that his American citizenship is to protect him from harm.

*Certain  
Broad  
Principles*

In justice to many of those who sailed on the *Lusitania*, it is to be said that they deliberately preferred to take their chances under the English flag, rather than the American, and had no thought that the American Government was guaranteeing them in such a choice. President Wilson is right in calling upon Germany to give up the submarine campaign against merchant ships. But he is also right in putting his protest upon high grounds, inasmuch as the *Lusitania* case is not primarily an American incident. There are times when one Government may be expected to speak on behalf of other countries besides its own, and of humanity and civilization in general. There were passengers of many nationalities on the *Lusitania*. The killing of one passenger creates a legal incident quite as truly, in the technical sense, as the killing of a hundred. The protest sent by President Wilson was entitled to the concurrence of all other neutral powers. The case was theirs as much as it was ours. Last month witnessed a successful conference at Washington (described elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW by Mr. Dunn) on the financial and business relationships of the United States with other American republics. It would seem as if the time had come for some

kind of conference of all these Western Hemisphere countries upon the rights and duties of neutrals,—in the hope that Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, and perhaps Spain, might also participate; or concur in the conclusions. It may not be untimely at this juncture to review some of the history that we have made during ten months, in our endeavors to hold to a neutral position and to maintain our national unity and harmony.

*American  
Neutrality*

At the outset of the war President Wilson not only proclaimed the neutrality of the United States in the official sense, but warned the people of the country to observe great care and moderation in their acts and language and even in their thoughts, in order that there might be harmony among us here at home and the greater power in due time to render service to the world at large. Strictly speaking, the duties of neutrality devolve upon governments and not upon private citizens. The people of the United States have conducted themselves with general propriety during this troubled period of ten months. With our great population of diverse origin, including millions of people born in the countries now at war, there has been a noteworthy lack of dangerous dissension. It was to be expected that there would be divergences of sympathy. But there has been a prevailing desire among the people of America, including those of foreign birth or recent foreign ancestry, that the United States should observe neutrality, that its people should not quarrel among themselves, and that American influence should be felt for law, justice, right, and humanity. There has been among all Americans a profound desire for the early establishment of permanent peace, upon a basis of justice, with due provision for preventing the recurrence of war.

*Remarkable  
Unity, in  
Trying Times*

It had been supposed in some quarters that there could be organized as an influence in our domestic politics those elements of American citizenship that sympathize with one side rather than with the other in the European conflict. There were events in May, as we have said, that caused the most intense feeling that had been aroused since the opening days of the titanic struggle. These events were of a kind to test the question of American unity. It is gratifying to record the fact that there was no fundamental discord,—no clash or separation of elements.

Americans of German origin showed themselves precisely as loyal to the Government of the United States, and as firm in their purpose to support its position and its policies, as did Americans of any other nativity or origin. No man gave up his right to use his own judgment, to think for himself, and to exercise free speech. Every American has at all times the full right to criticize American officials, from the President down;—to discuss their acts, policies, and utterances, and to oppose them from a partisan or from a personal standpoint, if he likes. There is no such thing as *lèse-majesté* in this country; but there are times and circumstances that call for restraint and self-control. At such times, true democracies will abate partisanship, find common terms of loyal agreement, and support honest leaders whom they themselves have intrusted with authority. The people of the United States, last month, showed that they were capable of self-government by exercising self-restraint, and agreeing among themselves to present a solid front under the leadership of the President and the national authorities. The country showed a like capacity for unity and loyalty seventeen years ago, when the Cuban situation brought us into conflict with Spain. Again, when President McKinley was assassinated, and Mr. Roosevelt came to the Presidency, the national character revealed itself in a way that commanded the admiration of the world. Many groups and societies of German-born citizens announced their adherence to the President's policy.



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

RESIDENCE AND OFFICIAL HEADQUARTERS OF MR. GERARD, THE AMERICAN AMBASSADOR IN BERLIN

(The old Schwabach Palace, on Wilhelm Square. It was reported last month that Italian interests at Berlin would be confided to the American Ambassador, as had those of England and France at the outbreak of the war. Special responsibilities like this furnished an added reason for trying to maintain cordial diplomatic relations between the United States and Germany.)

*A Friendly  
National  
Spirit*

Never was a nation more desirous of being at peace with every other nation under the sun than our own has been during this past year. We had entered upon the celebration of a hundred years of peace with England, in the firm faith that we could and would maintain a second century of peace with our Canadian neighbors and our British cousins much more easily than we had been able to maintain this first century. As for France, we were rejoicing because there had never been a falling-out with that country, except for the troubles about our shipping and commerce during the Napoleonic period that embroiled us alternately with France and with England. And this had been more than atoned for by the cession to us of the Louisiana country. As for Germany, we were glad to note that there had never been any breach of relations between the American Government and those of the German-speaking states or confederations. Our Peace Centenary plans had these things all in mind. We have been conscious of friendly sentiments, both official and unofficial, towards every other country in the world. We were negotiating peace treaties, and preaching arbitration, all around the globe. Our Government was ready, from the very outbreak of the great war, to lend America's good offices as mediator, and so informed all the belligerents. We were prepared to use our embassies at Berlin, Vienna, and Con-



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE GERMAN EMBASSY AT WASHINGTON  
(Property of the German Government.)



stantinople to care for the interests of English, French, Russians, or Japanese, as might be desired. We were equally ready, through our embassies at London, Paris, Petrograd, and Tokio, to take over the protection of German, Austrian, or Turkish interests. In short, the attitude of our Government was strictly neutral, wholly amicable; and that of our people was manifested in a general desire to help the suffering, and to keep from utter ruin the common structure of modern civilization.

*The  
Duties of  
Neutrals*

There were some prominent Americans who thought that our Government should have filed a protest against Germany's invasion of Belgium. They did not contemplate hostilities or breach of diplomatic relations; but they quoted certain clauses from the general treaty regarding the rights and immunities of neutrals, drawn up at The Hague and ratified by all the leading countries, including Germany. There were others who later took the ground that our Government ought to protest against such acts as the destruction of Louvain and the bombardment of the Rheims Cathedral. The Administration, however, did not see how it could wisely take official notice of incidents in the prosecution of the war, where the facts themselves were in dispute. It will be remembered that the Belgian commissioners brought to this country specific complaints as to alleged atrocities. Germany, on the other hand, made counter representations. There were appeals to our Government to protest against the dropping of explosive bombs from aeroplanes or Zeppelins upon unfortified places. But in none of these things did the President find himself called upon to interfere or make remonstrance.

*Asserting  
Rights of  
Neutrals*

We seemed upon the whole to be fulfilling our duties as neutrals. Our principal concern lay in having the belligerents fulfill their duties toward us. As we have more than once observed, there is very little trouble about the rights of neutrals in time of war when the fighting powers are relatively weak and the neutral ones strong and assertive. We had about twenty years of serious trouble on the score of our maritime rights as neutrals in the period that ended just a hundred years ago. That was because England and France were great and dominant countries, with powerful fleets and vast colonial and maritime interests. The Johns Hopkins Univer-

sity last month published a volume entitled "The Diplomacy of the War of 1812," by Professor Updyke, of Dartmouth College,—the book consisting of lectures given at the Johns Hopkins. It is highly instructive to read this volume in the light of some of the difficulties and embarrassments to which we have been subjected on the high seas since the outbreak of the present war. Some of the parallels are very suggestive, although in their practical bearings the conditions of to-day are quite different from those of the earlier period.

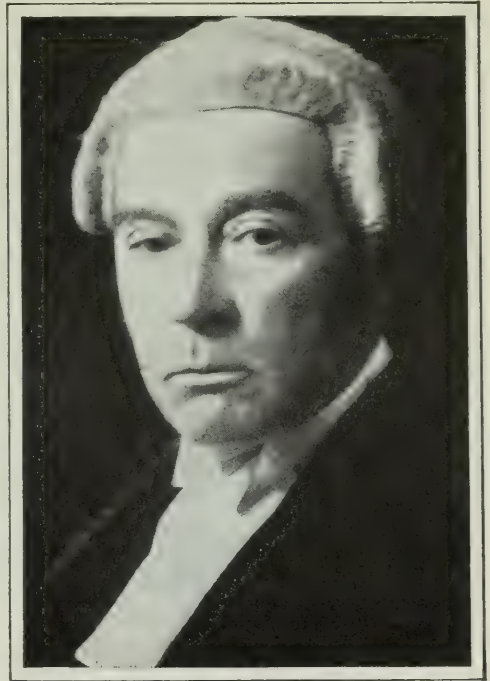
*Maritime  
Problems of  
This Era*

History has been made since last July too rapidly for those most closely concerned to keep the sequence of important events in their minds. Never in so short a period has so much happened that relates to ocean trade and commerce in time of war. Great confusion reigned for a few weeks, with a paralysis of trade, due to the activity of regular and auxiliary cruisers of the belligerent navies. At first neutral commerce in neutral ships was comparatively immune, because the belligerents had more direct and obvious matters to occupy them. The immense superiority of the Allied navies soon, however, produced the inevitable results. Germany's great merchant marine was interned in home or neutral ports for the period of the war. German fighting ships were gradually sunk or driven under cover until the high seas were wholly dominated by Great Britain and her allies. Then, plainly enough, all further trade with Germany from outside of Europe had to be carried on by vessels sailing under neutral flags. Two kinds of questions thereupon presented themselves,—namely, those relating to the character of the ship, and those relating to the character of the cargo.

*As Regards  
a Ship's  
Flag*

As regards the ship, the British and French Governments took positions that seemed to grow increasingly rigorous. Thus, from the standpoint of American law, an American ship on the seas is one that has been admitted to American registry in accordance with existing statutes. These statutes, as recently modified, permit the transfer to the American flag, upon proper purchase by American citizens, of ships that previously sailed under foreign flags. International law, as generally accepted, has sanctioned such transfers to a neutral flag in time of war, provided the purchase be genuine in fact and legiti-

mate in object and motive. Thus, under international law, an American citizen should have the right to buy a German merchant ship and use her in the carrying on of normal trade, with South America, for example. But the purchase should be genuine,—that is to say, it should be free from understandings that might amount to an evasive or collusive transfer. At the beginning of the war, our commerce was subjected to terrible hardship, because we had relied so largely upon British and German ships in our import and export trade. It was under these conditions that there was developed at Washington the plan for the Government purchase of ships, which should then be directly operated, or else leased, in order that American commerce at sea might have the protection of the American flag. One advantage of such a purchase by the Government of foreign ships was thought to lie in the fact that no one could question the validity of the investment.



LORD MERSEY, FORMERLY KNOWN AS SIR JOHN CHARLES BIGHAM

But before Congress could bring itself to deal conclusively with the Ship Purchase bill, ocean conditions had materially changed. England and the Allies had virtually cleared the seas. It had been thought that we might buy a good many German ships. An American shipowner named Breitung had bought a German ship known as the *Dacia*, secured American registry for her, and allowed her to be chartered for the shipment of a cargo of cotton to a German port. England, at that time, had withdrawn from her previous attitude regarding cotton, so that the *Dacia's* cargo was not in question. The question arose as to the propriety of the American registration of the ship. Since the question would have embarrassed an English prize court,—in view of established English doctrines which would have been favorable to the American contention,—it was arranged to have the *Dacia* detained by a French warship and taken into a French port. It seems that France has always opposed the transfer of a ship from belligerent to neutral ownership in time of war. It was clearly understood, however, that Great Britain would resolutely block the transfer of any important German merchant ship, lying idle in American ports, to American registry and use, whether bought by private owners or by our Government itself. This is not a sound or lawful position; but our Government has in effect submitted to it in order to avoid a clash with the Allies.

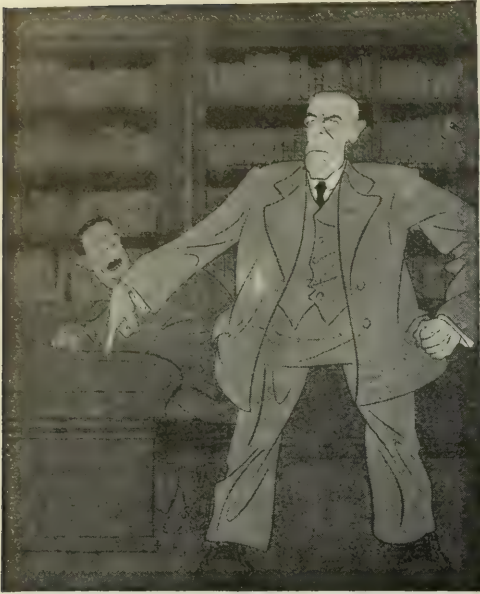
Transfers  
Opposed

(Lord Mersey is England's highest authority upon admiralty law and maritime affairs. He has been appointed to lead in the investigation of the loss of the *Lusitania*. He headed the inquiry into the sinking of the *Titanic*, and presided over the International Conference on Safety of Life at Sea, held in London in the season of 1913-14. Since the war he has served as the president of the board of arbitration that settles claims arising out of the taking of ships for Government service.)—

As to  
Nature of  
Cargoes

The other kind of questions had to do with the character of the cargo, rather than with that of the ship. Remember that the situation had become very simple. Ships of Germany and her allies were now eliminated from the discussion. Thousands of ships were carrying contraband of war to the Allies from every portion of the world. But there were no longer any German cruisers at large to prey upon such trade. There had come about a complete control of the seas by Great Britain (apart from the Baltic and certain adjacent waters). All remaining questions had to do with trade carried on in neutral ships with the enemies of Great Britain and her allies. At first, this undisputed control of the seas was exercised for the prevention of the transport to Germany and her allies of so-called "contraband of war." Nobody questioned the right of the British and French to employ the ancient practise of "visit and search." It was permissible to stop a neutral ship, find out her





A TEUTONIC IDEA OF AMERICA'S DEALING WITH GREAT BRITAIN

(This cartoon, which we reproduce from *Die Musketee*, of Vienna, is called "Wilson's Ultimatum to England." The President is represented as saying "If,—if they do that again, then,—then we will send them ANOTHER NOTE!!")

destination, and examine the character of her cargo. If she had on board guns, powder, or any other supplies intended for the direct use of hostile armies, the neutral ship and her cargo could be dealt with under the recognized rules of international law. Difficulties arose, however, on account of arbitrary and changing lists of materials and articles which Great Britain was from time to time treating as "conditional contraband."

Thus shipments of copper in neutral vessels from the United States to Italy and the Scandinavian countries were seized, on the ground that the material might afterwards be sent to Germany and used in the manufacture of guns and ammunition. This was wholly contrary to the rules and principles of international law. For some time England refused to permit cotton to be sent to Germany, although the use of this raw material in the spinning and weaving mills was a matter of ordinary industry, rather than of war supply. Subsequently this attitude about cotton was relaxed, but only for a short period. A large number of other articles and commodities were from time to time declared by England to be contraband of war, with sole reference to injuring Germany and with

no apparent regard whatever for the rights of neutral nations to engage in trade and commerce. Not less arbitrary and illegal were the methods by which the right of "visit and search" was exercised. Under pretense of making more thorough search than was possible at sea, many neutral ships were taken into British ports and held there for weeks or months in utter disregard of established rights. Under international law the presumption is entirely in favor of neutral ships pursuing their business upon the high seas; and they are not to be detained by interference of countries at war, unless upon clear grounds for supposing that they are engaged in carrying contraband of war to the enemy. For a time, our Government made frequent and very energetic protests against these arbitrary practises.

Prohibiting  
Food  
Shipments

Finally, however, the climax was reached when it was decided by Great Britain to use her sea power to suppress all neutral trade with Germany, of whatsoever character. This extreme position was reached by two steps. The first step was in the refusal to permit neutral ships to carry wheat and like food supplies to German ports. The pretext for



AN ENGLISH IDEA OF AMERICA'S DEALING WITH GERMANY

(This cartoon, from *London Punch*, refers to the memorandum given out by Ambassador von Bernstorff in April, complaining of American shipment of arms. The cartoon is entitled "Rejected Addresses," and represents the Kaiser as saying to Miss Columbia: "Perhaps it was right to dissemble your love, but why did you kick me downstairs?")

this unexpected step was found in the current news from Germany to the effect that the Government was controlling the distribution of bread. It was assumed by the English Government that this was equivalent to bringing food supplies under military control, so that they might be regarded as contraband of war. In simple and obvious truth, the Germans had not militarized breadstuffs and like articles. They had merely brought them under a joint municipal regulation, to prevent such private speculation and cornering of wheat as might result in hardship to the ordinary population. The best-known case of British action along this line had to do with the *Wilhelmina*, an American ship carrying a cargo of wheat to Germany. The British made seizure, agreeing, however, to pay for the wheat. While the British readiness not only to pay for the wheat that they had thus appropriated, but also to compensate the owners of the ship for interference and delay, were in mitigation of hardships to Americans, the incident illustrated the abandonment of all recognized principles of international law. The Government of the United States made protest, but without effect. The British Government seems to have been quite misinformed regarding the food situation in Germany, and to have come under the spell of a strong temptation to violate international law for the sake of producing famine conditions, and thus weakening the enemy and shortening the war.

*Germany's  
Announced  
Retaliation*

It was at this juncture that Germany, greatly exasperated, made announcement, on February 4, that two weeks later (February 18) a new policy would be entered upon, involving the use of submarines, in a zone surrounding the British Isles, against merchant ships belonging to her enemies. The significant clause in the announcement issued by the German Admiralty was as follows:

Every enemy merchant ship found in this war zone will be destroyed, even if it is impossible to avert dangers which threaten the crew and passengers.

It was further explained that neutral ships in the war zone would be in danger, although it was made clear that this would only be through accident and not through intention. Our Government, on February 10, sent a note to Germany the purport of which was to protest against any harm being done by this policy to American ships or citizens. The note was very friendly, and

its views were summed up in the following sentence:

The Government of the United States . . . expresses the confident hope and expectation that the Imperial German Government can and will give assurance that American citizens and their vessels will not be molested by the naval forces of Germany otherwise than by visit and search, though their vessels may be traversing the sea area delimited in the proclamation of the German Admiralty.

*Her  
Explanation to  
Washington*

On that same date our Government protested, in a note to the British Government, against the use of the American flag by British ships as a means of protection against submarines, explaining our concern for "the safety of American vessels and lives in the war zone declared by the German Admiralty." Germany, in a long and very interesting answer sent to Washington on February 18, reviewed the circumstances which had led to her policy, which, it was declared, "represents solely a measure of self-defense imposed on Germany by her vital interests against England's method of warfare, which is contrary to international law." The note pointed out the fact that the German Government, while easily able to prevent it, had up to that moment permitted the extensive traffic in food from Denmark to England;—while England, on the other hand, had cut off outside food from Germany, even where expressly for civilian use and carried in an American ship like the *Wilhelmina*. We were permitting the vast trade in arms and munitions of war from the United States to England, while apparently not trying very earnestly to protect our flag in strictly non-contraband trade with Germany. The possible danger to neutrals in the war zone, where Germany proposed to use mines as well as submarines, was frankly set forth in this remarkable communication of February 18.

*The Excellent  
American  
Proposal*

On March 1, Premier Asquith, in the House of Commons, announced the determination of the Allies to "frame retaliatory measures, in order in their turn to prevent commodities of any kind from reaching or leaving Germany." This declaration was so vague in its terms as to practical methods that it became necessary for neutrals to know what was meant. Meanwhile, however, our Government, on February 20, had taken a step of the highest importance. It had framed a proposal, which was sent at the same time to London and Berlin. First, neither Germany nor Great Britain were to sow float-





EUROPE SHOULD BE WARNED BY SAMSON'S FATE  
From the *News* (Chicago)

ing mines on the high seas and territorial waters, and they were to restrict their use of anchored mines. Second, neither was to use submarines to attack merchant vessels, except to enforce the right of visit and search. Third, neither was to permit merchant vessels to use neutral flags for purposes of disguise. Germany, on its part, was to agree that food imported from the United States should be sent to agencies of American designation, and so distributed as to make certain its use for non-combatants. Great Britain was to agree not to interfere with food shipments consigned to agencies designated by the United States Government in Germany. This was a sound and a righteous program. It called both countries back from lawlessness to a decent observance of the principles of international law.

The German reply was sent on March 1, and it accepted the American proposals in all essential respects and in a proper spirit. Great Britain's reply was not made until March 13, and it was thoroughly unsatisfactory, refusing the American proposals. Its first half consisted of a long series of charges against the Germans for their conduct in Belgium, their alleged bad treatment of British prisoners in Germany, and many other things having no bearing upon the points made in the American proposal. Its second half consisted of a long and unfortunate argument in favor of the policy of starving non-combatants as a proper means of waging war, Bismarck and Caprivi being quoted as hav-

ing, at some past time, defended such practices. Sir Edward Grey ended by declaring emphatically that the policy of excluding foodstuffs from Germany would be persisted in. In this communication of March 13, Sir Edward Grey used the word "blockade," and it had evidently been decided by the British authorities to justify their arbitrary proceedings as at least analogous to a well-known method in maritime warfare. A recognized blockade, however, is one that employs warships at the entrance to ports, in such a way as to be able to prevent the incoming and outgoing of vessels. On March 15, in answer to our further inquiries, Sir Edward Grey declared that it was not the British intention "to interfere with neutral vessels carrying enemy cargo of non-contraband nature outside European waters, including the Mediterranean."

On that same date (March 15) there was issued a British Order in Council, declaring a blockade of German ports. The text of the order, which comprises a number of detailed paragraphs, shows that the policy set forth is not that of a blockade in the recognized sense. It is not to be denied, however, that it has the same practical effect; while it must further be admitted that it was so planned as to impose the least possible hardship upon neutrals. It is a demonstrated fact that England and her allies are actually able to cut off neutral trade, by sea with Germany. While the so-called "cordon" is probably not represented by any actual placing of ships at

Germany  
Agrees, England  
Refuses

Britain's  
"Blockade" of  
Germany

stated intervals, or over against the approach to harbors, there is a real stoppage of traffic; and so the policy cannot be criticized as that of a mere "paper" blockade. There have been those who held that our Government should have gone farther in its endeavors to maintain for American ships the right to carry food to German ports. But when Great Britain developed her retaliation to the point of proclaiming a blockade, she was at least much nearer the old landmarks of international law than was her opponent. Furthermore, she was not forgetting the principles of humanity.

Effective and  
Acquiesced In

If it were objected that her long-range blockade was novel in method, there was permissible the reply that those who objected were at liberty to try the experiment of blockade-running. Doubtless if all neutral powers had joined together to make protest and to declare that they could not permit their ships to be detained under pretext of blockade, except at the actual approach to particular ports, England and her allies might have made the Order in Council of March 15 still more precise and definite. But this was not done, and it would seem that neutral powers had in effect accepted the policy of the Allies as amounting to a lawful blockade. Germany could not rightly say that we were under any obligations as neutrals to be concerned about the way a blockade should affect one belligerent or another. We can only consider how the Order in Council affected our own rights and interests. If our Administration did not protest vigorously to Great Britain after March 15, it was because it did not regard it as necessary to adopt that course. Numerous previous communications to Great Britain had shown that our State Department was mindful of American commercial interests.

Germany's  
Policy  
Unjustified

In the note of February 10 to Germany we had intimated that any sacrifice of American lives or ships in the war zone would oblige us to hold Germany to strict accountability. While not admitting that neutral powers were remiss to the extent of being at fault, it may be said that they would have been justified in going much farther in February and March than they actually did go at that time in protesting against the proposed use of mines and submarines. The waters in which Germany undertook to operate were not British, but a part of the high seas,

open, for free and peaceful use, to the whole world. Many hundreds of vessels belonging to Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland were accustomed to use those waters. The commerce of South America, as well as of North America, was also affected. It might now be wished that a joint protest of the most vigorous kind, from all neutral nations, had been drafted and sent to the German Government in February or March. That the policy was wholly wrong, irrespective of Germany's provocation, must be admitted by all clear-thinking people.

Right and  
Wrong, Even in  
Warfare

What many Americans, and particularly the newspapers, have seemed to forget is that the policy was wrong from the start, regardless of particular incidents. It was announced on the 4th of February that Germany meant to sink all merchant vessels in the described zone belonging to her enemies. The wrong thing was the policy itself. It was inevitable that the incidents would be shocking, and that sooner or later some particular incident would involve large loss of life, as in the case of the *Lusitania*. War is so bad a thing that to some minds there is no such thing as legitimate ways of carrying it on. But there are clear distinctions that have been worked out in human experience. A great German scholar and publicist, Dr. Francis Lieber,—who came to this country in the period before our Civil War and did so much to teach us the principles of political science and international law,—formu-



THE REFUGEES

From the Tribune (Los Angeles)



lated in a hundred clauses, for President Lincoln, a code which was promulgated for the guidance of our armies; and it has formed the groundwork of principle upon which the world has gone far towards agreement in the regulation of practises pertaining to the carrying-on of warfare. The dropping of explosives from airships upon unfortified places is dastardly and is not warfare, but wanton crime. The use of floating mines, or of torpedoes discharged from submarines, to sink merchant ships without notice, is as wrong a thing in principle as the poisoning of wells. Such methods have not even the excuse that they are humane in the long run because they shorten a war. They have no such results.

*The Allies  
and Neutral  
Complaints*

It is well understood that the American Government was making close record of incidents in the submarine campaign, and that a note would have been sent to Germany even if the *Lusitania* had been unmolested. Furthermore, a note to England and her allies was under contemplation regarding the operation of Orders in Council respecting the ships and the commerce of neutrals. The *Lusitania* instance was so flagrant that the note to Germany was expedited; and it assumed a much graver character than the previous notes and dispatches of the State Department. There remained the duty of presenting to Great Britain our up-to-date protest against her arbitrary conduct on the high seas, and her negligent treatment of ships and cargoes held for search or for action in prize courts. The President returned to Washington on May 19, from his inspection of the fleet at New York; and it was somewhat confidently expected that he would within a very short time instruct the State Department to present our complaints to Great Britain from the standpoint of neutral rights. Not only was such a statement due in order that American ship-owners and merchants should have a proper standing, but it was also due to our national dignity in view of the repeated charge that we condone England's violations of international law because our interests lie in the direction of favoring our munificent customers. It was felt that German public opinion would be more favorable towards a change in the submarine policy, with a friendly answer to Mr. Wilson's note, if there had also been made public a restatement and assertion of our rights as they have been disregarded by England.

*A Strong  
British  
Ministry*

General military and political conditions in May led up to something like a British ministerial crisis, and resulted in the announcement, on the 19th, that the cabinet would be entirely reconstructed and that the two great parties would share offices alike. France at the outset of the war had given up the party system, and had practically abandoned legislative activities. A ministry had been formed from the strongest men of all parties, and the two legislative chambers had given this cabinet unlimited financial and military authority. England until now had prosecuted the war with the Liberal party holding all the offices, excepting that Lord Kitchener, who is a soldier and not a partisan, had been made Minister of War. Under existing law, a parliamentary election is to be held at least once in five years. The present House of Commons was chosen in 1910. But it is not convenient to hold a general election this year; and the leaders of all parties have agreed to postpone it. Under the circumstances, however, it has become desirable to unify the country in the prosecution of the war by bringing the Unionist leaders into the cabinet, and proceeding henceforth in total disregard of party lines.

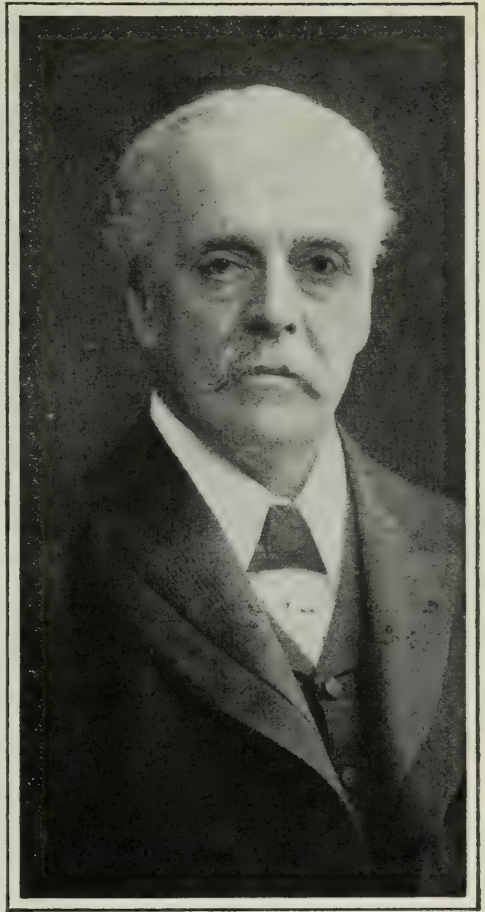
*Expected  
Changes*

In his preliminary announcement, Mr. Asquith made it clear that he would continue as Prime Minister, that Sir Edward Grey would hold his post as Foreign Minister, and that the general war policy would remain unchanged. A serious rupture had come about between Mr. Churchill, as head of the Navy Department, and Admiral Fisher, who, as First Sea Lord, is the professional or operative naval chief. It was expected that Mr. Churchill would take another portfolio, and that perhaps Mr. A. J. Balfour, formerly Prime Minister and the most distinguished of the Conservative leaders, would become First Lord of the Admiralty. It was intimated that Mr. A. Bonar Law, who has been for some time leader of the Conservative opposition in the House of Commons, and who is a business man of large experience, might succeed Mr. Lloyd George as Chancellor of the Exchequer. In this case Mr. Lloyd George would be given some other cabinet post in which his extraordinary energy and talent would find even greater opportunity to serve the country's immediate needs. It was understood that Mr. Arthur Henderson, the leader of the Labor party,

would have a place in the cabinet, and that Mr. John Redmond, the Irish leader, would probably decline a seat. It was also conjectured that Lord Kitchener might be transferred to the command of the British armies in the field, and that his present work at the War Office might be divided, with one statesman as War Minister in the usual sense, and another as organizer and director of the vast business of the supply of war materials. It was surmised that Mr. Lloyd George might be the best man to overcome the labor difficulties in the shipyards and munition factories, and to accomplish things on the business side of war preparation for which Kitchener has been less fitted than for the recruiting and military side.

*A Capable Group*

Certainly the British Empire needs the services of the strongest men of all parties who can be brought together. The navy has grown faster than it has been depleted by losses; yet the management of the Dardanelles campaign, and a number of other matters, show that there has been friction and that there is room for improvement in efficiency. The British soldiers fight well, and their officers are brave; but the work of recruiting and training has left much to be desired. Upon the whole, the Liberal cabinet has been strong and deserving of the national support it has received during the past year of emergency. The proposed coalition cabinet, however, bids fair to be the most capable and



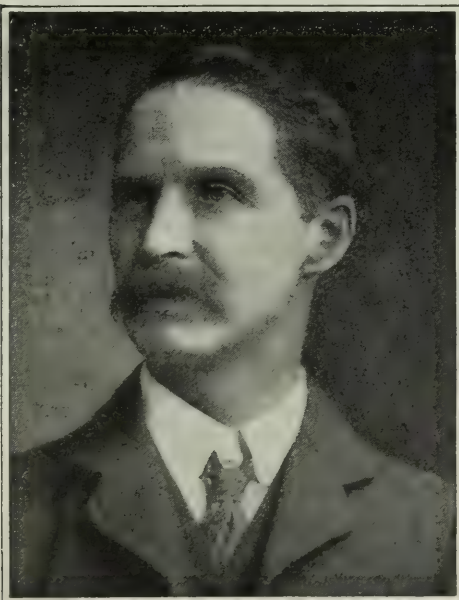
THE RT. HON. ARTHUR J. BALFOUR, FOREMOST UNIONIST LEADER

(Mr. Balfour was expected last month to become a member of the new British coalition cabinet)

intelligent ever organized in the entire history of the United Kingdom.

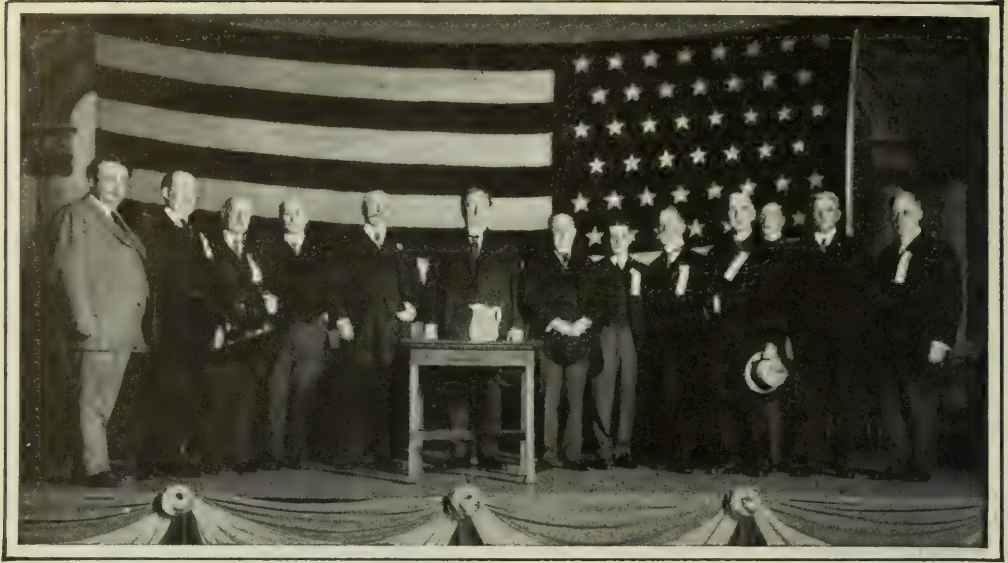
*Looking to the Future*

Americans are ready to believe that this British cabinet will mean to fight for the establishment of permanent peace on a basis of justice, and with the prospect of a great reduction in the burden of armaments. Leaders of opinion in the United States are not trying to end this particular war, but they are planning thoughtfully for the future establishment of tribunals whose judgments can be enforced. They would have the neutrality of small countries like Belgium, and of large countries, too, guaranteed by arrangements that would be effective. We are publishing in this number an article by Professor Jenks, upon the movement for a strong international tribunal, that culminated in a great confer-



THE RT. HON. ANDREW BONAR LAW





A GROUP OF PROMINENT SPEAKERS AT THE WORLD COURT CONGRESS, HELD AT CLEVELAND LAST MONTH  
(Left to right: Congressman William W. Wilson, Dr. John Wesley Hill, Henry Clews, James Brown Scott, Judge Alton B. Parker, ex-President William H. Taft, John Hays Hammond, Mayor Newton D. Baker, Rabbi Joseph Silverman, Dr. Francis E. Clark, Theodore Marburg, Emerson McMillin, Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks)

ence at Cleveland last month. Following it will be found an article sent to us by Mr. Herbert Stead, of London, outlining with some precision a plan for the strengthening of The Hague Court as approved by himself and many fellow "pacifists" in England and Europe. Every right-minded man and woman should advocate a future reign of law under which all peoples may find security and may lay aside fear and hatred. Meanwhile, however, we must again emphasize what we have said in a preceding paragraph, to the effect that there is now such a thing as law and established custom regulating the method of carrying on war. Neutrals owe it to themselves and to mankind to protest with louder voices than heretofore against the violation of such rules.

*Existing Rules of War*

No belligerent in the present war has accomplished anything of military value by the mistreatment of women and children; by the destruction of architectural monuments or of humble homes; by the use of floating mines, or by the dropping of bombs from airships. The aeroplanes have a great and proper use for purposes of reconnaissance. The submarine is a lawful weapon to be employed by navies against navies. Poisonous gases seem to belong with poisoned water and the distribution of typhoid or cholera germs, as having no lawful place in war-

fare. As to the practise of terrorism in an invaded country, there are points of great difficulty. We have before us the report of an English commission, headed by Lord Bryce, which, under direction of the British Government, has investigated the charges of German massacre and rapine in Belgium. Lord Bryce's associates were Sir Frederick Pollock, Sir Edward Clark, Sir Alfred Hopkinson, and three other men of high standing and ability. They examined more than twelve hundred depositions, and are convinced of the truth of a vast array of serious specific allegations. It is difficult to know the truth regarding the German explanations. In most instances they defend their severity on the ground that civilians were "sniping," that is to say, shooting at German soldiers in the street from windows and roofs. At least it would seem that the reign of terror in Belgium took a somewhat definite course and came to a definite and early end. Let us hope that such phases of the war are past, and that operations henceforth will have a more strictly military character.

*Japan Settles with China*

One of the fortunate events of the memorable month of May was the conclusion of a final agreement between Japan and China, which averted all danger of rupture. Japan gains many advantages, but it is by no means clear that China will be hurt rather than helped



Photograph by Brown Brothers

YUAN SHIH-KAI, PRESIDENT OF CHINA

by Japan's program. It is not easy for an impartial American friend of both countries to discover that China is deprived of any essential right or power that she cannot regain in the future when she has attained a higher political and industrial development. Our authorities at Washington have been kept well informed, and have not considered Japan's policy in China as harmful to our present or future trade interests. China will require political advice and tutelage, and outside aid in the development of economic resources, for a good while to come. Japan's interests require conditions of permanent intimacy and friendship between these two great Asiatic powers. We shall in due time present an extended review of the new arrangements between China and Japan, from the pen of an authority.

*Mexico's Destruction*  
Terrifying as some aspects of the European struggle have been, there is nothing in the whole world so forlorn as the plight of Mexico, and no topic so enshrouded in gloom. There is more hope in the worst corner of Europe than in the brightest spot of Mexico. In the period of Huerta's dominance our authorities at Washington pinned their faith

upon Carranza. He seemed to represent the cause of the people, and to have a fair prospect of leading the way to peace and regeneration. Later on the Administration was obliged to give up Carranza as wholly disappointing, and to make Villa, with his well-regarded assistant, General Angeles, the object of their prayers and hopes. General Obregon has of late seemed to hold the center of the lurid stage, and he is in the field while his chief, Carranza, lingers at Vera Cruz. A high authority at Washington remarked in private confidence the other day that a vigorous American leader could take a large trainload or two of provisions and a million dollars in cash, and march straight to the City of Mexico with 200,000 loyal Mexican troops, who would be glad to serve him for daily bread and a small regular wage. Mexico to-day is an anarchy, not an organized political sovereignty. A military dictatorship doubtless will establish itself upon the ruins. It is a thousand pities that responsible Mexican citizens who have property and lawful interests in that country are so lacking in wisdom and common sense that they do not urge the United States Government to take up the task of reorganizing Mexico in an altruistic and neighborly spirit.



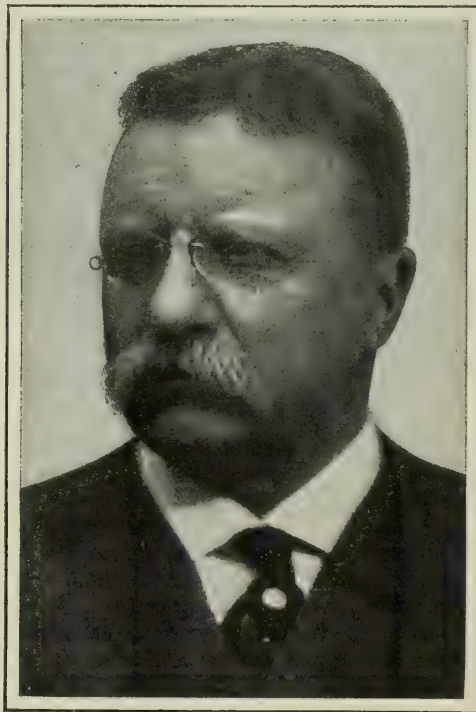
Spain  
and  
Portugal

As the leaders of the Spanish kingdom look on at the spectacle of colossal warfare raging all about them, they have no little reason to feel more kindly towards the United States than heretofore. Spain's neutrality remains unshaken, and she is free from the worry and distraction of distant colonies. Her relations with Cuba are such that the rich island is worth more to her now than in the period before 1898. The Philippines are well off her hands, yet are open to her for commerce. Her security in these troublous times is greatly enhanced by the fact that she is not maintaining armies and navies in the costly and dangerous business of suppressing West Indian and East Indian uprisings. Their progress at home will enable the Spaniards to gain a stronger influence in due time over the small country, Portugal, that occupies a portion of their Iberian Peninsula. The Portuguese have not yet learned how to run their little country as a republic. They were engaged last month in riots and revolts that took on the character of civil war. One Prime Minister was deposed, and another was shot. A part of the navy mutinied and shelled the city of Lisbon. In the fighting 200 persons were reported killed and 500 wounded. President Arriaga was continued in office, the revolutionary movement having been directed not against him, but rather against the policy of Premier Castro. At a distance these Portuguese disturbances seem unreal, somewhat like Central American revolutions as presented in comic opera. But to the people actually living there the political discords are real and highly disturbing. Spain may have to intervene some day, and attach a "Platt Amendment" to the Portuguese constitution!

Barnes  
vs.  
Roosevelt

For several weeks up to May 7 the Roosevelt-Barnes trial at Syracuse had bold headlines every day on the front pages. Then for a few days the *Lusitania*, President Wilson's note, the Italian crisis, and other large matters demanded attention; and Brother Barnes' profits as a hard-working Albany printer were forgotten by the thousands of other honest and self-sacrificing printers who need so-called State and county "pap" to sustain the precarious business of local journal-

ism. The case reached its end just as these pages were sent to press. Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Barnes had occupied the witness-stand for many days. Experienced political observers meanwhile had found out nothing about Colonel Roosevelt that they had not always known; while, on the other hand, it may be said that well-informed people in the State of New York had gained no new impression of Mr. Barnes. Libel suits, however, have technical aspects; and it may be assumed that the lawyers of the country have gained from this unusual case some new knowledge of court procedure and the



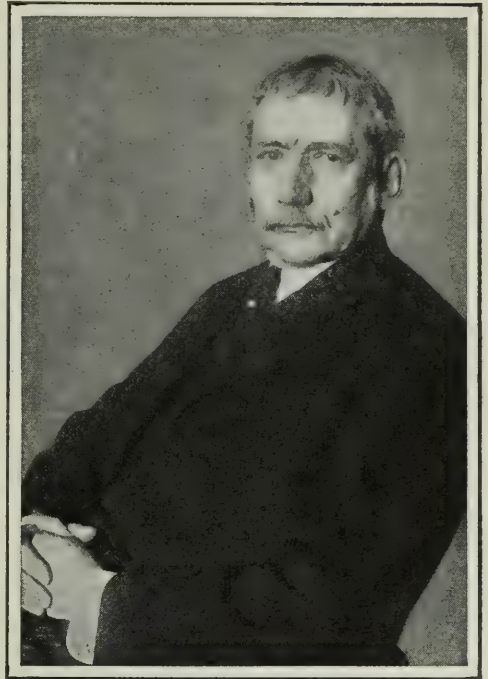
© Alexander Paehl

THEODORE ROOSEVELT  
(From a very recent photograph)

application of the law of libel that may be useful in future contests and may justify in some degree the enormous expenditure of time and money that went on at Syracuse for five weeks. Justice Andrews charged the jury that the two matters to be considered were whether there was an alliance between Mr. Barnes and Charles F. Murphy during the Senatorial contest of 1911, and whether Mr. Barnes worked through a corrupt alliance between "crooked politics and crooked business." The jury's finding for Colonel Roosevelt,—the expected outcome,—was a tribute to the career of a public man whose record had been put to a most exacting test.

Woman  
Suffrage in  
New York

Soon after the New York State Constitutional Convention assembled at Albany an interesting question arose regarding the effect of such action as the convention may be disposed to take on the subject of woman suffrage. It will be remembered that two successive legislatures have voted to submit to popular vote an amendment to the present constitution granting suffrage to women. This was in fulfilment of pledges made in the platforms of the three leading parties. Parenthetically we may observe that neither the resolution as passed by the two legislatures nor the party platform declarations committed anybody to the principle of woman suffrage. It was merely the submission of the question to decision at the polls. The legislature having taken this action, the people will vote on the question at the coming November election. If a majority of votes should be cast in favor of the suffrage amendment, the existing constitution of the State would be altered in that respect. But, meanwhile, a convention has been called which may proceed to write and submit to the people an entirely new constitution, embodying such provisions regarding the suffrage as it may see fit. Under a provision of the present constitution any action taken by the convention will supersede the action of the legislature. The advocates of woman suffrage in New York are, therefore, desirous that the convention itself should do nothing



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HON. ELIHU ROOT AS PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

that will nullify the effect of the vote on the amendment in November, whatever may be the collective opinion of the delegates on the merits of the question.



A MAJOR OPERATION

(Apropos of the convention to revise the New York State Constitution, and two of its dominant leaders, Elihu Root and William Barnes)

From the *World* (New York)

In selecting the chairmen of the important committees, the President, Mr. Root, gave merited recognition to several delegates of conspicuous ability and reputation for public service. The chairman of the Judiciary Committee and "floor manager" of the convention is the Hon. George W. Wickersham, former Attorney-General of the United States. The Hon. Seth Low, former Mayor of New York, is chairman of the Cities Committee, while the Hon. Henry L. Stimson heads the Committee on State Finances. Mr. Louis Marshall, a prominent lawyer of New York, is the chairman of the Committee on Preambles and Rights; Mr. Charles M. Dow, the efficient president of the Niagara Commission, of the Committee on Conservation, and Mr. Frederick C. Tanner, of that on Governor and other State Officers and Short Ballot. The chairmanship of the Committee on Legislative Powers was conferred on the Hon. William Barnes, of Albany, whose familiarity with the subject has been asserted from different standpoints in recent legal pro-



ceedings at Syracuse. Altogether it is fair to say that the ability and special aptitudes of the individual delegates are well represented by the chairmen of the important committees.

As to the pending issues in the convention, no one looks for any radical or sensational outcome of the proceedings and, indeed, it is hardly to be expected that any revolutionary proposition will even reach the stage of debate. The outlook for municipal home rule is more favorable than ever before. This is no longer a novel principle in America, although thus far it has failed of adoption in the Empire State. There is little question that the convention will provide some way by which the great cities of the State may manage their own strictly local affairs. As to the question of New York City's increase of representation in the legislature on the basis of its population, the prospect is more doubtful. The existing restriction prevents the city from obtaining a majority of the legislature, even though its population is more than half that of the State, and it pays nearly two-thirds of the total State taxes. The up-State counties, always jealous of the steadily growing power of the metropolis, stanchly oppose every suggestion looking to an increase of New York City's dominance in State affairs. On the other hand, the enormous property interests of the city are more and more insistent on a controlling voice in State finance. Before and after the adjournment of the last legislature the New York municipal authorities engaged in a heated controversy with the Albany officials over the question of the \$18,000,000 State tax, and insisted that Governor Whitman, through the exercise of his veto power during the thirty days after the

adjournment of the legislature, should arbitrarily cut out items from the annual appropriation bills so as to make possible the vetoing of the direct-tax bill. This controversy focused the attention of the State on the issue between the metropolis and Albany.

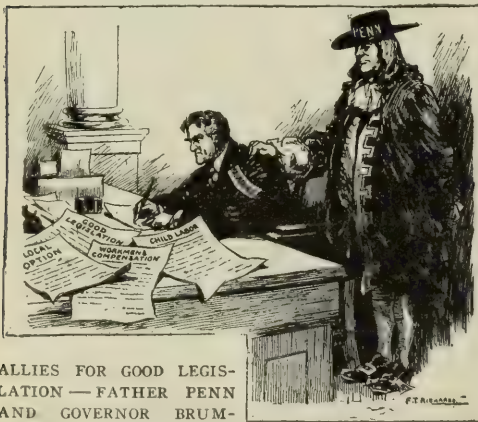
Although forty State legislatures have been in session in this country since the first of January, the work of most of them has attracted little attention. The volume of so-called progressive legislation for the current year is undoubtedly smaller than for many years past. It is by no means true, however, as some newspapers have alleged, that a wave of reaction has swept the country. There has been a marked pause in radical law-making in those parts of the country,—the Middle West and the Pacific Coast,—where this kind of legislating had come to be taken as a matter of course. But in the Eastern States, which had lagged a little behind the rest of the country, this year's legislation is well up to established standards, and in the field of labor and social legislation even shows an advance. The State of Pennsylvania, for example, under the leadership of Governor Brumbaugh, has put on its statute-books a child-labor bill that has been advocated for years by the Child Labor Association of that State,—at times with slight hopes of success.

Like most enactments of this kind the new Pennsylvania law represents a compromise. The bill originally endorsed by Governor Brumbaugh provided a forty-eight-hour week and an eight-hour day, while the bill supported by the manufacturers granted a fifty-four-hour week and a nine-hour day. The Cox bill, as now enacted, provides a fifty-one-hour week and a nine-hour day, subject to a reduction of eight hours a week to permit children between fourteen and sixteen to attend vocational schools. Pennsylvania, a State in which thousands of children are employed in the glass industry and in mines, has long been known as one of the most backward of our commonwealths in the regulation of child labor, although her neighbor States having similar industries have for some time enforced child-labor laws, thus taking from the Pennsylvania manufacturers the argument of a competitive handicap. The passage of this law in Pennsylvania is among the first fruits of Governor Brumbaugh's administration and it will be taken as an earnest of his purpose to advance the standards of social legislation in the Keystone State.

City and State

Lawmaking East and West

Child Labor in Pennsylvania



ALLIES FOR GOOD LEGISLATION — FATHER PENN AND GOVERNOR BRUMBAUGH From the North American (Philadelphia)

*Progress in  
New York*

In New York, it must be admitted that the legislative session in its early stages gave some indication of reactionary tendencies. Efforts were made to tamper with the labor laws in the interest of certain influential groups of employers. In the end, however, public opinion concentrated in such a way as to frustrate most of these efforts. In the May REVIEW we referred to the new Mothers' Pension law which is generally regarded as an important step in advance. The working of this law will be closely watched by other States, since the New York experiment will be tried on a larger scale than elsewhere. Another measure that cannot fail to have far-reaching effects is the law for consolidating the State Labor Department and the Workmen's Compensation Commission. A State Industrial Commission is created for the administration of all the labor laws. In composition and powers this new board closely follows the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, created four years ago and later copied by Ohio. The five commissioners will be appointed by the Governor for six-year terms, and each commissioner will be made personally responsible for some special part of the administrative work. The Governor will also appoint an unsalaried Industrial Council, with advisory powers only, five members to represent employers and five to represent employees. The secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, Dr. John B. Andrews, declares in the *Survey* that in passing this law the New York Legislature "has enacted the most advanced system for the administration of its labor laws, including its Workmen's Compensation Act, that has yet been adopted by any American State." The changes made in the Compensation law will be treated at length in a subsequent number of this REVIEW.

*Other  
States*

In New England the legislatures have been sorely embarrassed in attempting to deal with the complicated problems arising in the reorganization of the Boston & Maine Railroad system. The New Hampshire lawmakers adjourned without taking any action on this matter, and thus far no agreement has been reached in Massachusetts. The Maine Legislature, however, passed a bill which seemed satisfactory to the various interests involved. The New England legislatures are giving increased attention to questions of conservation, particularly the control of water-power and the reforestation of wild lands. In Massachusetts the development of an adequate road

system in the western portion of the State has crystalized in a definite program. Aside from the passage of a direct primary law in Vermont, practically no "progressive" measures have gone on the statute-books in New England during the present year. For the rest of the country, the outstanding achievements in the year's legislative record are very few. Iowa becomes the eighteenth State to limit the working day of children under sixteen years of age to eight hours. Street trades and messenger service are also regulated by law. North and South Dakota have abolished capital punishment for murder,—a reform that was unsuccessfully advocated in New York, California, and other States. The Alaska Legislature took similar action. On the Pacific Coast one of the few enactments of general interest was the California bill providing for non-partisan elections, a system that had already been introduced in Minnesota. California has adopted the system of convict labor on highways that has been successfully tried out in Colorado. Missouri and Utah are among the States that have legalized land-bank systems.

*Optimism in  
Business*

The stock-market barometer of trade and industry was rising rapidly until checked by the *Lusitania* disaster and the uncertainties following it. While the more spectacular advances in stock prices seen in April and the first week of May came in the securities of those concerns favored, or supposed to be favored, by foreign orders for war supplies, the copper stocks advanced only less rapidly under the stimulus of a current price for the metal of nineteen cents per pound; it had gone as low as eleven cents early last autumn. The railroad securities, too, followed the prevailing tendency, though in more orderly fashion. But the really remarkable phenomenon was the suddenly changed mental attitude of business men toward the future. The long spell of depression seemed to break all at once; the banks were replete with money and, of a sudden, people felt that they wished to do something with it, to risk it in ventures. When one inquires concerning the reasons for this radical change an important factor seems to be simply the revulsion from long depression, a purely psychological consideration. But there are other more tangible reasons. Bank clearings, a highly important index of trade activity, were increasing in volume rather rapidly, except on the Pacific Coast. Although the United States Steel Corporation did not begin to earn even its preferred dividend





THE GENERAL STORE  
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)

in the first quarter of 1915,—the worst but one in its history,—it was noticed that the second month of the quarter was a great improvement over the first, and the third month a still greater improvement over the second. It was reported that the steel mills were running at nearly 70 per cent. of their capacity instead of the 30 per cent. of last autumn. The most important development, however, was the brilliant report as to the country's crops.

A Wonderful  
Crop  
Forecast

The Government crop report of May 8 was surprisingly favorable. With the largest acreage of winter wheat ever known, the crop condition had improved radically during April, and the estimate of yield was for 693,000,000 bushels, breaking all records in our history. This surpassed expectations of the experts by about 20,000,000 bushels. Not only had the condition improved; the lost acreage was the smallest since 1902. The spring wheat situation was most favorable, and there was a fair promise of the largest total wheat crop ever harvested in America. Spring plowing and planting were much farther advanced, under good conditions, than is usual; excellent crops of rye and hay were indicated, and statisticians began to talk of a total value of farm products in 1915 of twelve billion dollars.

The High  
Price of  
Wheat

Wheat was, in the middle of May, still bringing the farmers about \$1.40 per bushel, a price known only under war conditions, or when stocks were in the way of being "cornered." It was noticeable, however, that speculative

prices for wheat to be delivered next autumn, after the present crop is harvested, were nearly forty cents less,—an extraordinary difference which reflects the doubt of speculative dealers in grain on three main points: (1) whether the enormous production now promised will not overtake consumption; (2) whether the Allies will not succeed in the Dardanelles and open an outlet for Russia's stores of wheat to come from the shores of the Black Sea; and (3) whether peace will not come, this summer, to warring Europe and suddenly lessen the special demands of Europe for our foodstuffs. Competent authorities are inclined to the opinion that even if the Dardanelles are opened, Russia will be chary about letting her food supplies leave her shores under war conditions; and until peace is declared they believe we are not likely to grow wheat crops so large as to leave an exportable surplus large enough to swamp Europe and radically reduce the high price now coming to our farmers.

Railroads Must  
Sell Lake  
Steamships

On May 15 the Interstate Commerce Commission published its decision that, under the provisions of the Panama Canal Act, certain railroads owning steamship lines on the Great Lakes must go out of the business of water transportation and sell their vessels by December 1, 1915. The Commission probably considered that Section 11 of the Canal Act left it very little discretion in judging the matter. At any rate, wherever it found that, as a physical fact, ports of call were being served in common by the boats and the paralleling rails of the owning railroad, it decided that the water lines must go out of existence or be operated by independent companies. It is very difficult to see how any useful purpose is accomplished by this act of Congress as applied to the lines on the Great Lakes. They serve as important feeders to the owning railroads; they are understood to be no source of profit in any other way. More important, if the owning railroads made rail rates, or rail-and-water rates, that discriminated against independent lines, and were against the public interest, the Commerce Commission had ample power to bring them to account. The railroads affected are the Pennsylvania, Northern Central, Lehigh Valley, New York Central, Rutland, Erie, Grand Trunk, and Lackawanna. It is stated that the property that must thus suddenly be sold represents an investment of nearly \$150,000,000.

<sup>A Southern</sup>  
<sup>University</sup>  
<sup>President</sup>

The University of North Carolina, which began work in 1795, and was reopened, after a period of interruption caused by the Civil War, in 1875, has just installed as its president one of its own graduates, Dr. Edward Kidder Graham. The university, its faculty, and its students, have for many years been at the forefront of the Southern movement for democratizing education. One of the distinguished graduates of the university is President Alderman, of the University of Virginia, and another was the late Dr. Charles D. McIver, whose remarkable campaigns in behalf of popular education are not yet forgotten in the State. Dr. Graham, whose inauguration took place on April 21, is keenly interested in the extension and diffusion of the university's service to the people, and the methods that have been found so practical and helpful in Wisconsin and other States have already been adopted by North Carolina.

<sup>A</sup>  
<sup>Johns Hopkins</sup>  
<sup>Event</sup>

Another academic occasion that made a peculiar appeal to the South was the inauguration, on May 20, of President Frank J. Goodnow at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.



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PRESIDENT FRANK J. GOODNOW OF JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY



PRESIDENT EDWARD KIDDER GRAHAM OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

Johns Hopkins was opened for students in 1876, the year following the reopening of the University of North Carolina, and from the very first a large proportion of its students were men of Southern birth, although in the early years, when the Southern colleges had not yet recovered from the poverty of the war era, the graduate students who came to Baltimore for advanced work were at a serious disadvantage in the matter of preparation. At the inauguration exercises, in which the presidents of fifty American and Canadian colleges and universities took part, there was a great reunion of Johns Hopkins alumni, many of whom hold professorships and administrative posts in universities and colleges throughout the country. On the following day the new Gilman Hall and Mechanical Engineering Building were dedicated. This university, a pioneer among American schools in the fostering of scholarly research and advanced methods, seems to be entering a new period of growth with its removal to the site at Homewood and the erection there of adequate buildings,—a possession that it has never before enjoyed. The influence of Johns Hopkins on the nation's intellectual life has been and now is out of all proportion to its size or endowment. This fact is recognized by university men throughout the country.



# VARIED ASPECTS OF THE WAR IN PICTURES



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## AUSTRIAN TRENCHES IN GALICIA

(Note the fences in the river which conceal to a certain extent trenches on the bank)



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## DISINFESTING APPARATUS IN USE BY THE AUSTRIAN FORCE IN EAST GALICIA

(Reports say that typhoid fever has been prevalent and apparatus of this description is in general use)



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

## GERMAN SOLDIERS BEING VACCINATED AGAINST TYPHOID BY MILITARY SUR- GEONS, ON THE GALICIAN FRONT



© American Press Association, New York

BRITISH SAILORS STANDING BENEATH THE "NEPTUNE'S" BIG GUNS

*The allied British and French forces attacking the Turks at the Dardanelles,—both on sea and on land,—have seemed to work in entire harmony and efficient coöperation, although their task has proved more difficult than had been anticipated.*



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

ARRIVAL OF THE FRENCH EXPEDITIONARY FORCE AT ALEXANDRIA. ON THEIR WAY TO THE DARDANELLES





© American Press Association, New York

GERMAN SOLDIERS LIVING IN HUTS MADE OF LEAVES AND BRANCHES OF TREES, BUILT IN A WAY THAT MAKES THEIR PRESENCE INVISIBLE TO THE AVIATORS

*The strongly fortified city of Przemsyl, in Galicia (a view of which is shown below), was again last month the scene of fighting on a huge scale. This time, however, it was the Russians who were defending it, after an occupation of less than two months.*



© American Press Association, New York

A PEACEFUL VIEW OF PRZEMSYL



© Brown Brothers

AUSTRIAN AND GERMAN OFFICERS ON AN AUSTRIAN RAILROAD LINE NEAR THE FRONT



Photograph by Press Illustrating Co.

THE GERMAN LANDSTURM DOING DUTY, WITHOUT RIFLE AND PROPER UNIFORM, IN THE TRENCHES IN POLAND,—DIGGING AND BUILDING UP UNDERGROUND SHELTERS





Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

**LORD KITCHENER REVIEWING A PARADE OF HIS NEW TROOPS AT MANCHESTER, ENGLAND, IN FRONT OF THE TOWN HALL**

(The picture also shows one of the methods adopted for stimulating recruiting in Great Britain)



Photograph by Paul Thompson

**LECTURES ARE NOW BEING GIVEN TO THE NEW RECRUITS OF THE ENGLISH ARMY ON HOW TO CONSTRUCT TRENCHES SO AS TO GUARD AGAINST THE HAVOC OF SHRAPNEL AND OTHER SHELL FIRE**

(The lecture, in this case, has been accompanied by a practical demonstration—by the recruits themselves)



Photograph by International News Service, New York

**RUSSIAN PRISONERS OF WAR PREPARING THE GROUND FOR PLANTING POTATOES**



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

**GERMAN PRISONERS WORKING AS CARPENTERS AND BUILDING THEIR OWN BARRACKS, GUARDED BY FRENCH SOLDIERS**





PROFESSOR DR. VON SCHJERNING (X), GERMAN GENERAL STAFF PHYSICIAN AND CHIEF OF THE SANITARY CORPS EXPLAINING THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE MOTOR AMBULANCES



Photo by Press Illus. Co.

TRANSPORTING WOUNDED AUSTRIAN SOLDIERS BY BICYCLE  
(The Voluntary Ambulance Corps in Budapest at work)

# RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From April 21 to May 20, 1915)

## *The Last Part of April*

April 21.—It is stated in the House of Commons that there are more than 750,000 British soldiers at the front, and that in two weeks of recent fighting the British artillery used almost as much ammunition as in the whole Boer War.

Operations in Africa are disclosed by official reports; allied French and British forces are declared to have been successful in the center of Germany's West Africa colony of Kamerun, while Germany records a victory on January 18-19 over British forces in German East Africa.

April 22.—German troops force their way across the canal northeast of Ypres,—advancing three miles, occupying four villages, and taking 1600 British and French prisoners.

April 23.—It is reported in Rome that Rumania has made demands for territorial concessions in Transylvania from Austria.

An Allied Fleet proclaims a blockade of the coast of Kamerun.

April 24.—Austrian troops capture by storm Ostry Mountain, in the Beskid range of the Carpathians, dominating roads and railways.

April 25.—The Allied forces renew their attack upon the forts protecting Constantinople; the Anglo-French fleet covers by a heavy bombardment the landing of troops on both sides of the Dardanelles (the British on the European side, the French on the Asiatic), and the Russian fleet shells the Bosphorus forts.

April 26.—The French cruiser *Leon Gambetta* is torpedoed and sunk by the Austrian submarine *U 5* in the Strait of Otranto (connecting the Adriatic with the Ionian Sea); Admiral Senes and more than 500 members of the crew are drowned.

The Belgian, British, and French armies around Ypres check the German offensive and recapture some of the ground lost.

The German converted cruiser *Kronprinz Wilhelm* interns at Newport News, Va.

April 27.—An International Women's Peace Congress is opened at The Hague, with delegates from fourteen countries.

April 28.—The American oil tank steamer *Cushing* is slightly damaged by a bomb dropped from a German aeroplane in the North Sea.

April 29.—The British Government's plan for regulating the consumption of liquor is set forth by Chancellor Lloyd George in the House of Commons; heavy increases in taxes are proposed, together with Governmental control of the sale of drink in areas producing or transporting war materials.

A widely circulated dispatch from Rome reports that an agreement has been reached under which Italy will enter the war upon the side of the Allies when the long-expected offensive begins.

April 30.—Dunkirk, the important French seaport, is shelled by heavy artillery from behind the German lines in Belgium, about twenty-two miles away.

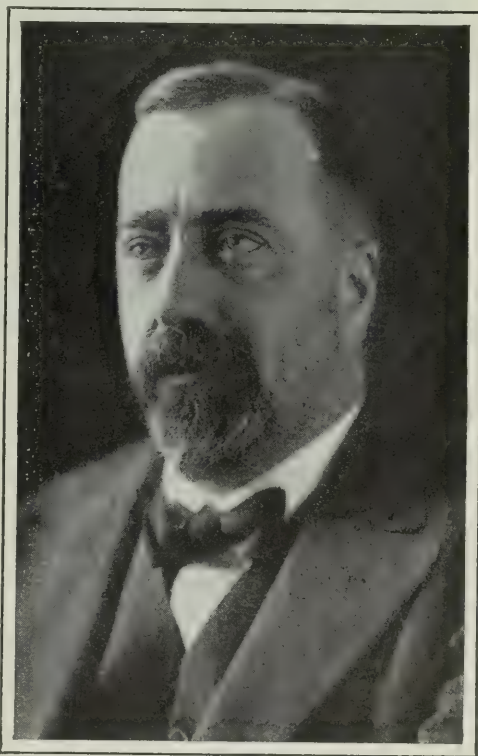
June—3

A Turkish statement maintains that the French invading forces on the Asiatic side of the Dardanelles have been forced to withdraw.

The Australian submarine *A E 2* is sunk by Turkish warships while attempting to enter the Sea of Marmora, through the Dardanelles.

## *The First Week of May*

May 1.—The American oil-carrying steamer *Gulflight*, bound for a French port, is sunk off the Scilly Islands with a loss of three lives; the crew declare that the ship was torpedoed by a German submarine.



© Underwood & Underwood, New York

DR. BERNHARD DERNBURG

(Who has been a prominent, though unofficial, spokesman for Germany in this country. It was reported last month that he was planning to leave the United States and return to Germany.)

A British destroyer is sunk by a German submarine near the Dutch coast; later, in the same region, two German torpedo boats are sunk by four British destroyers.

May 2.—Austrian and German troops under General von Mackensen force back the Russian line along the entire front in western Galicia, taking more than 20,000 prisoners.





ITALIAN SOLDIERS LEAVING FOR THE AUSTRIAN FRONTIER

May 4.—In presenting the budget to the House of Commons, Chancellor Lloyd George states that eight months of war have cost Great Britain \$1,535,000,000.

Italy denounces the Triple Alliance (with Germany and Austria) and "resumes entire liberty of action."

May 5.—Hill No. 60, near Ypres (Belgium), is recaptured by the Germans in an assault preceded by the projection into the British trenches of great volumes of gas.

May 7.—The great transatlantic liner *Lusitania* is torpedoed and sunk by a German submarine, without warning, off the southern coast of Ireland; 1150 persons lose their lives (including more than 100 Americans), and 767 are rescued.

Records indicate that since the "war zone" decree became effective, on February 18, German submarines and mines have sunk 71 merchant ships of belligerent nationality, and 20 neutral vessels.

The British destroyer *Maori* is sunk by a mine near the Belgian coast.

The British Government's plan for imposing a surtax on alcoholic beverages is withdrawn, and it is proposed to substitute complete prohibition of the sale of spirits less than three years old.

May 8.—After an attack by land and sea, German troops occupy Libau, an important Russian seaport and naval base on the Baltic.

An official Austrian report maintains that the offensive movement in Galicia has forced the complete withdrawal of Russian forces from Hungary.

### The Second Week of May

May 9.—French attacks result in considerable progress north of Arras and along a front of four miles south of Carency.

May 10.—A German airship (according to a Dutch report) is destroyed by a fleet of aeroplanes over Brussels; two of the aeroplanes are wrecked.

May 11-12.—Austrian forces in eastern Galicia are compelled to retreat along a front of nearly 100 miles.

May 12.—The report of the British commission (headed by Viscount Bryce) which investigated charges of German cruelty in Belgium, is made public; the evidence is declared to prove that "murder, lust, and pillage prevailed on a scale unparalleled in any war between civilized nations during the last three centuries."

The French complete their occupation of the village of Carency, north of Arras.

The capital of German Southwest Africa, Windhoek, is occupied without resistance by Union of South Africa forces under General Botha.

May 13.—The United States protests to Germany against the submarine policy culminating in the sinking of the *Lusitania* with many American passengers aboard; the note states that the United States expects Germany to disavow such acts and take steps to prevent their recurrence, and declares that the United States will not be expected to omit any word or act necessary to maintain the rights of its citizens.

The British battleship *Goliath* is sunk in the Dardanelles by a torpedo from Turkish destroyers; more than 500 sailors lose their lives.

The British battleship *Goliath* is sunk in the repatriate all unnaturalized aliens of enemy countries.

Germany declares that more than 100,000 Russians were made prisoners during the recent battles and pursuit in western Galicia.

The Salandra ministry in Italy resigns, as it did not command the support of all parties in the proposal to enter the war upon the side of the Allies.

May 14.—The Austro-German drive in Western Galicia reaches Jaroslau, north of Przemyśl.

May 15.—Premier Salandra of Italy consents to retain office after two prominent statesmen had declined the King's invitation to form a ministry.

### The Third Week of May

May 16.—British forces in northern France carry nearly two miles of German trenches northwest of La Bassée.

May 17.—The Germans are forced to withdraw across the Yser Canal in Belgium, from a position won from the French on April 22.

May 18.—The Austro-German armies in western Galicia force a passage of the San River, north of Przemyśl; it was at this barrier that the Russians had counted on checking the advance.

The German Imperial Chancellor outlines in the Reichstag the Austrian offers of territory to Italy, in return for continued neutrality.

Lord Kitchener, British War Secretary, calls for 300,000 men to form new armies.

May 19.—Premier Asquith announces in the House of Commons that the Liberal Cabinet will be reorganized; it is confidently predicted that Unionist leaders will be invited into the Cabinet.

May 20.—The Italian Chamber of Deputies meets and adopts (by vote of 407 to 74) a bill presented by Premier Salandra, "to meet the eventual expenditures of a national war."



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#### SUBMARINES OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY

(A great fleet of warships lay at anchor in the Hudson River last month, before starting for extensive maneuvers at sea. These undersea craft attracted attention from multitudes of spectators, far out of proportion to their size)

## RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From April 21 to May 20, 1915)

### AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

April 21.—The Alaska House agrees to the Senate bill abolishing capital punishment.

April 26.—The New York State Constitutional Convention reconvenes; George W. Wickersham (former Attorney-General of the United States) is appointed chairman of the Judiciary Committee.

April 28.—Capt. William S. Benson is appointed Chief of the new Bureau of Operations in the Navy Department.

April 29.—Ex-President Roosevelt, after eight days on the witness stand, concludes his testimony in the libel suit brought against him by William Barnes, Jr., the Republican organization leader in New York.

April 30.—Arbitration of the demands of 65,000 Western locomotive engineers and firemen results in concessions in wages and hours of labor, but the workmen's representatives refuse to sign the award.

May 4.—Mayor James H. Preston (Dem.) of Baltimore, is reelected by a large majority, defeating Charles H. Heintzeman (Rep.) . . . The Federal Reserve Board transfers the 132 member banks in northern New Jersey from the Philadelphia to the New York district.

May 15.—The Interstate Commerce Commission decides that under the Panama Canal Act railroads cannot own steamship lines on the Great Lakes.

May 20.—Mr. Barnes' suit for libel against Colonel Roosevelt goes to the jury after a month of testimony and argument.

### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

April 23.—The Danish Diet adopts a constitutional amendment extending the suffrage to women; the measure must also pass the succeeding Diet.

April 28.—In an engagement with rebels in Tripoli, more than 200 Italian soldiers are killed.

May 1.—The Greek Parliament is dissolved; elections are to be held on June 1, and the new Parliament will be opened on July 10.

May 3.—The Venezuela Congress elects as President of the republic Juan Vicente Gomez, a former President.

May 15.—A revolution breaks out in Lisbon and several other cities in Portugal, directed against Premier Castro and with the professed object of strengthening the republican form of government. . . . Premier Salandra consents to retain office



## OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

April 21.—Dr. Edward Kidder Graham is inaugurated president of the University of North Carolina.

April 26.—Announcement is made at the Navy Department that the battleship *California*, under construction at the New York Navy Yard, will be propelled by electricity,—the first in the world.

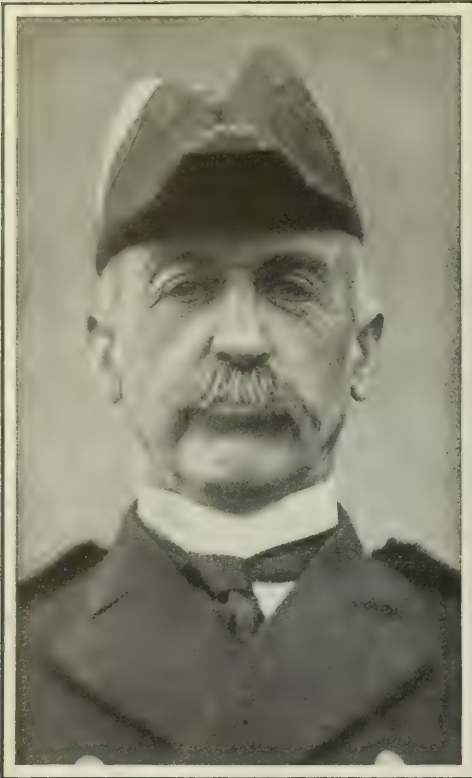
April 30.—Fire destroys twenty-two blocks in Colon, Panama, killing eleven persons, rendering 7000 homeless, and causing property damage exceeding \$3,500,000. . . . Wireless communication is perfected between Washington and the Panama Canal Zone (2000 miles apart); previously messages could be exchanged only at night, under favorable conditions.

May 3.—John R. Lawson, a member of the executive board of the United Mine Workers of America, is found guilty by a Colorado jury of murder (the penalty being life imprisonment at hard labor) for his leadership of striking miners during a riot which resulted in the death of a deputy sheriff in October, 1913.

May 8.—Ensign Melvin L. Stolz, a United States naval aviator, falls from his machine during a flight at Pensacola, and is killed.

May 12.—A World Court Congress convenes at Cleveland, with many delegates of national prominence, to discuss an international court of justice for the settlement of disputes between nations.

May 18.—A great fleet of United States war-ships, which for ten days had been on exhibition in the Hudson River opposite New York City, passes out to sea in review before President Wilson and Secretary Daniels. . . . Prof. Henry



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

#### REAR-ADMIRAL WILLIAM S. BENSON

(Who has taken up his duties as Chief of the Bureau of Operations in the Navy Department, an office created by the last Congress. He is "charged with the operations of the fleet and with the preparation and readiness of plans for its use in war." Admiral Benson is a native of Georgia, was graduated from the Naval Academy in 1877, and at the time of his promotion was commandant of the navy yard at Philadelphia)

in Italy, after presenting his resignation on May 13 owing to the opposition of ex-Premier Giolitti to his plans for entering the war.

May 17.—João Chagas is shot and seriously wounded by a Portuguese Senator a few hours after assuming the Premiership.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

April 26.—Conferences are resumed at Peking, between the Chinese Foreign Minister and the Japanese Minister to China, and a new draft of the Japanese demands is presented.

May 1.—China's maximum concessions are communicated to the Japanese Minister.

May 4.—Italy denounces her alliance with Germany and Austria, maintaining that Austrian advances in Serbia constitute a grievance which, after five months of negotiations, Austria has failed to satisfy.

May 7.—Japan presents an ultimatum to China relating to the proposals under discussion: the group to which China most seriously objected is withdrawn.

May 9.—China accepts the demands contained in the Japanese ultimatum.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

SAILORS FROM THE ATLANTIC BATTLESHIP FLEET BEING REVIEWED BY PRESIDENT WILSON IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH



ELBERT HUBBARD

CHARLES KLEIN

© Paul Thompson

JUSTUS MILES FORMAN

© Paul Thompson

CHARLES FROHMAN

SOME OF THE PROMINENT PERSONS WHO WENT DOWN WITH THE "LUSITANIA"

Suzzalo, of Columbia University, is chosen president of the University of Washington.

May 20.—Dr. Frank J. Goodnow is inaugurated president of Johns Hopkins University. . . . At the Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration, Secretary of War Garrison and Gen. Leonard Wood argue for preparedness for war as a means of keeping peace.

#### OBITUARY

April 22.—William H. Bancroft, president of the Oregon Short Line Railway, 75.

April 23.—Jeremiah O'Rourke, former supervising architect of the Treasury Department, 83.

April 25.—Frederick W. Seward, assistant to his father as Secretary of State under Presidents Lincoln, Johnson, and Hayes, 84.

April 26.—John Bunny, the popular moving-picture actor, 52. . . . Joseph Patrick Nannetti, M.P., former Lord Mayor of Dublin, 64.

April 27.—Alexander N. Scriabin, the famous Russian pianist and composer, 43.

April 28.—Prof. Henry E. Van Deman, a noted pomologist.

April 30.—Edward D. Easton, a pioneer in the manufacture of talking machines, 69.

May 2.—John Lee, former vice-president of the International Mercantile Marine, 64. . . . Joseph Johnston Hardy, for many years professor of mathematics at Lafayette College, 71. . . . Mrs. Helen Burrell d'Apéry ("Oliver Harper"), the novelist, 73. . . . Rt. Hon. John Francis Moriarty, Lord Justice of Appeal for Ireland. . . . Charles Edgar Littlefield, former Member of Congress from Maine, 63.

May 3.—Joseph A. Goulden, Representative in Congress from New York City, 70.

May 4.—Gerrit Smith, inventor of the quadruplex system of telegraphy, 76. . . . Sir Wil-

liam Richard Gowers, M.D., a noted English physician and writer on medical subjects, 70.

May 5.—Solomon Schindler, a prominent Boston rabbi and writer, 73.

May 6.—Lieut.-Gen. William Henry Beumont de Horsey, a survivor of the famous Light Brigade charge at Balaklava, 89.

May 7.—Fred Stark Pearson, a distinguished mining and railway engineer, 53. . . . Charles Frohman, theatrical manager, 54. . . . Charles Klein, playwright, 48. . . . Alfred G. Vanderbilt, 37. . . . Elbert Hubbard, author and lecturer, 55. . . . Justus Miles Forman, novelist, 39. . . . Herbert S. Stone, editor and publisher of the *House Beautiful*. . . . Lindon Bates, Jr., a prominent New York engineer, 31.

May 9.—Rt. Rev. Charles Henry Colton, Roman Catholic Bishop of Buffalo, 66.

May 10.—Rt. Rev. Laurence Scanlan, Roman Catholic Bishop of Salt Lake, 72. . . . Rt. Rev. Camillus P. Maes, Roman Catholic Bishop of Covington and permanent president of the Eucharistic Congress, 69.

May 11.—Prof. Karl Lamprecht, the noted German historian, 59. . . . Brig.-Gen. William H. Forwood, U.S.A., retired, former Surgeon-General, 76. . . . Very Rev. F. M. L. Dumont, president of St. Austin's College, Catholic University, 77.

May 12.—David MacLean Parry, former president of the Manufacturers' Association and noted as an opponent of unions, 65. . . . Marshall Cushing, editor and publisher of *Howe*, 55.

May 14.—Ex-Judge George M. Curtis, a prominent New York lawyer, 72.

May 15.—Edgar Melville Ward, the artist, 76.

May 17.—George H. Russel, of Detroit, former president of the American Bankers' Association, 67.

May 19.—Gen. Thomas H. Hubbard, the New York lawyer and banker who financed Admiral Peary's Arctic explorations, 76.



# THE CARTOONIST'S VIEW OF WORLD TOPICS



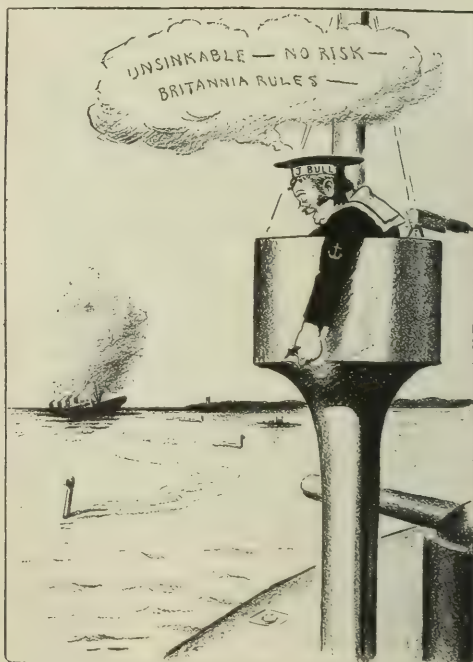
THE ARK OF THE NEUTRAL NATIONS, TOSSED ON A STORMY SEA

From *De Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)



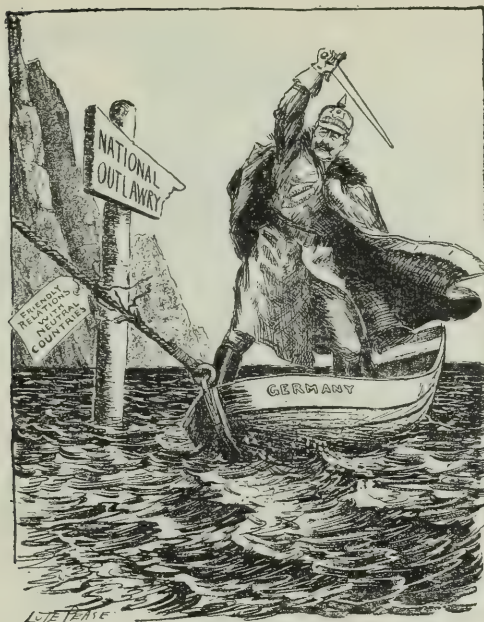
THE NEUTRALS PROTESTING AGAINST THE GERMAN "WAR ZONE"

From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Aires)



PLEASANT DREAMS, WHILE THE LUSITANIA SINKS

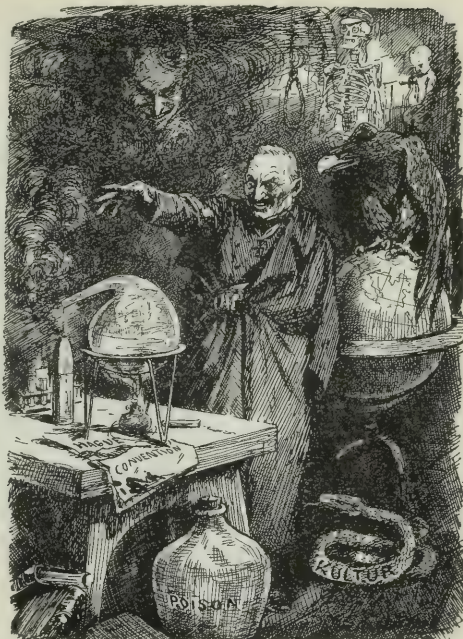
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



WHY?

From the *Evening News* (Newark)

**T**HREE of the cartoons on this page give expression to views of Germany's attitude that are very generally held by Americans at the present time. The fourth,—from *Punch*,—may be regarded as typically



THE ELIXIR OF HATE

THE KAISER: "Fair is foul, and foul is fair;  
Hover through the fog and filthy air."  
From *Punch* (London)

English. In earlier numbers of this REVIEW,—notably in November, 1914,—we have reproduced characteristic German cartoons which served in a similar way to exhibit current national amenities.



THE GERMAN SPIRIT OF '48

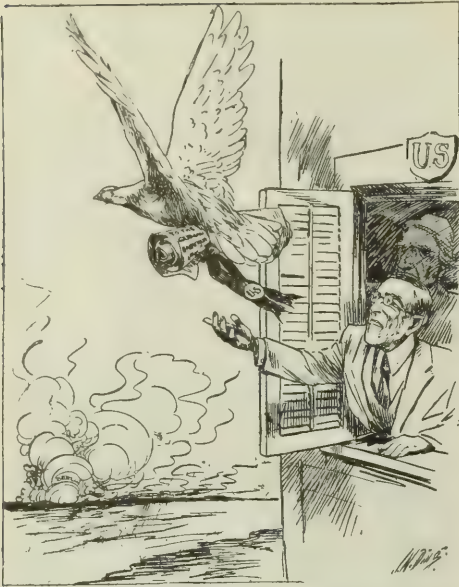
"Ich weiss nicht, was soll es bedeuten."—Lorelei.  
From the *Sun* (New York)



STRANGE COMPANIONS

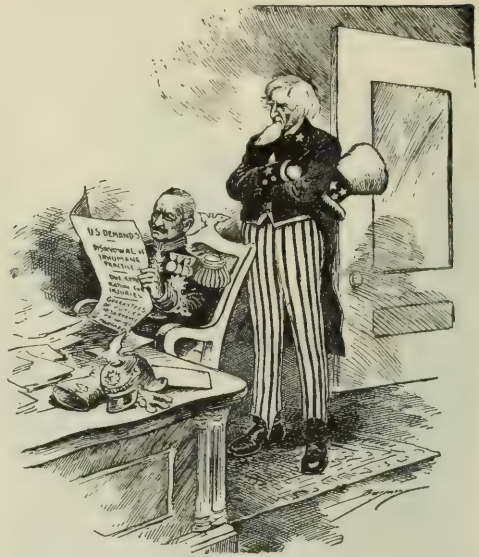
From the *Tribune* (New York)





WILL IT BRING BACK AN OLIVE BRANCH OR  
A MAILED GANTLET?

From the *Register and Leader* (Des Moines)



A DOCUMENT THAT CALLS FOR THE MOST SERIOUS  
CONSIDERATION

From the *Evening Star* (Washington, D. C.)

#### PRESIDENT WILSON'S LETTER TO THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT

The sending of the note to Germany, on May 13, had been eagerly awaited by the American public for several days. The terms of the note, when published, were almost universally commended, but its probable effect was a matter of doubt, as is well illustrated in the cartoon above, while the

national sense of the dignity and weight of the letter as a state paper is expressed by Uncle Sam at the right. On the whole, no one has more unerringly caught the universal response of the plain people to the President's utterance than May of the *Cleveland Leader* in the cartoon below.



"SO SAY WE ALL OF US"  
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)



"NOW, IF YOU DON'T PROFIT BY THAT LESSON—"  
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia)

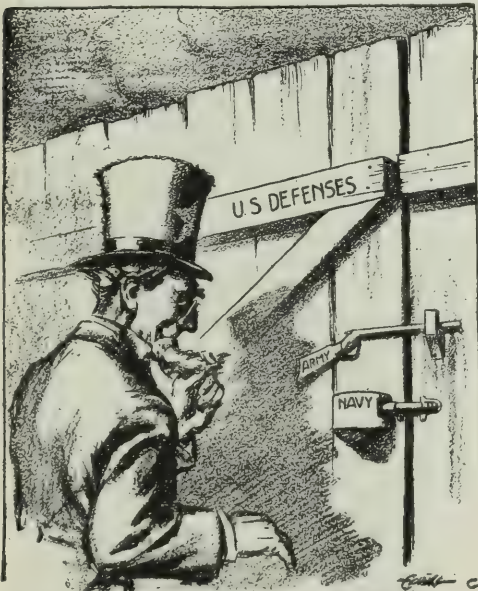
This page gives various points of view on the subject of national defense. Uncle Sam's perplexity is amusingly portrayed, and in the cartoon at the right, from the *Tacoma Ledger*, his activities as an Alaskan railroad-builder are contrasted with the pursuits of Mars. On the whole, Uncle Sam seems to find relief from a trying situation in the Alaskan enterprise.



UNCLE SAM—"WHAT POSSIBLE GOOD WOULD COME OF MY ARGUING WITH YOU?"  
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)



IN HEAVY MARCHING ORDER  
From the *Ledger* (Tacoma)



U.S.—looks as if an enemy could break right in if he'd a mind to.

EXAMINE YOUR LOCKS, UNCLE SAM!  
From the *American* (Baltimore)

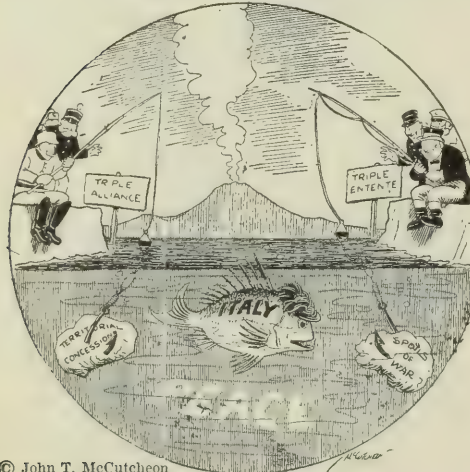


UNCLE SAM'S QUANDARY  
Inadequate defense, adequate defense, or militarism.  
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

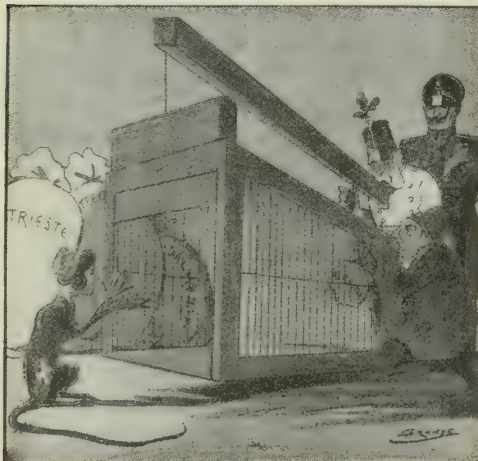




ITALY AND THE AUSTRIAN HEN COOP  
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)



© John T. McCutcheon  
ATTRACTIVE BAIT From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



THE FUTILE TRAP WITH ITS BAIT OF CONCESSIONS  
TO ITALY From *Fischietto* (Turin)



ITALY'S INTERNAL WAR

(Italians were not entirely unanimous in demanding war. There were demonstrations on both sides, accompanied at times by rioting. The opposition even brought about the resignation of the ministry, but Premier Salandra was persuaded by the King to retain office)

From *Numero* (Turin)

For ten months Italy had remained out of the great European struggle. Although formally allied with Germany and Austria, her interests had seemed to lie rather with the Allies. Her covetousness of territory along the Austrian frontier was in greater measure than Austria's willingness to satisfy; and when the Italian parliament met on May 20 it sanctioned the drawing of the sword.



HOW EMBARRASSING—THIS PEACE LADY!  
From the *Times-Dispatch* (Richmond)



JAPAN AS THE VACUUM-CLEANER

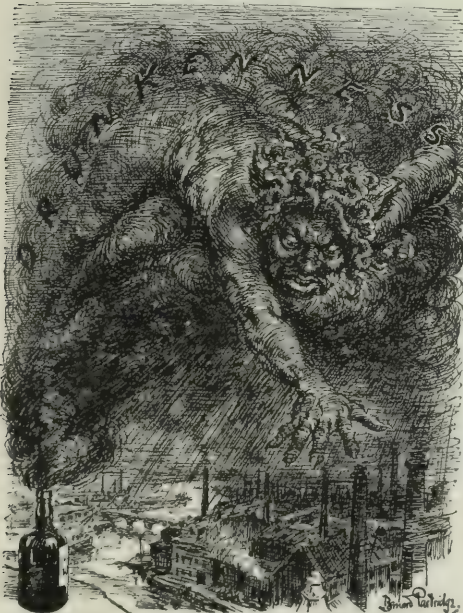
(Called in to clean up a spot in China [Kiao-Chau] Japan absorbs the whole country)  
From *Ulk* (Berlin)



THE JAP'S TICKET CALLS FOR EVERYTHING IN THE LAUNDLY, IN THE OPINION OF THE CHINAMAN  
From the *Herald* (Chicago)



THE DISADVANTAGE OF BEING BUSY, PEACEFUL, AND UNPREPARED  
From the *Dispatch* (Columbus)

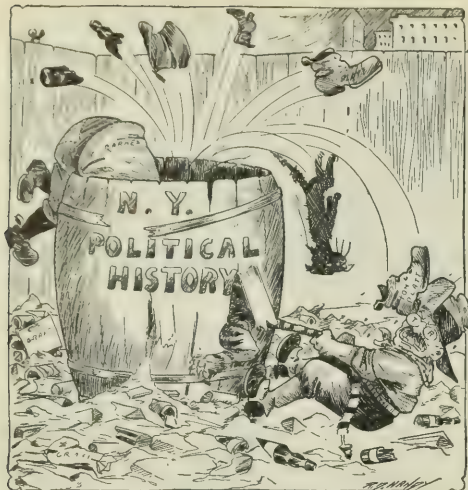


THE ENEMY'S ALLY From *Punch* (London)



A HARD BEAST TO HANDLE  
(John Bull is finding it a very difficult task to overthrow Demon Rum)  
From the *World* (New York)





GOING CLEAR TO THE BOTTOM OF IT  
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)

Four cartoons here shown relate to Mr. Barnes' libel suit against Colonel Roosevelt.



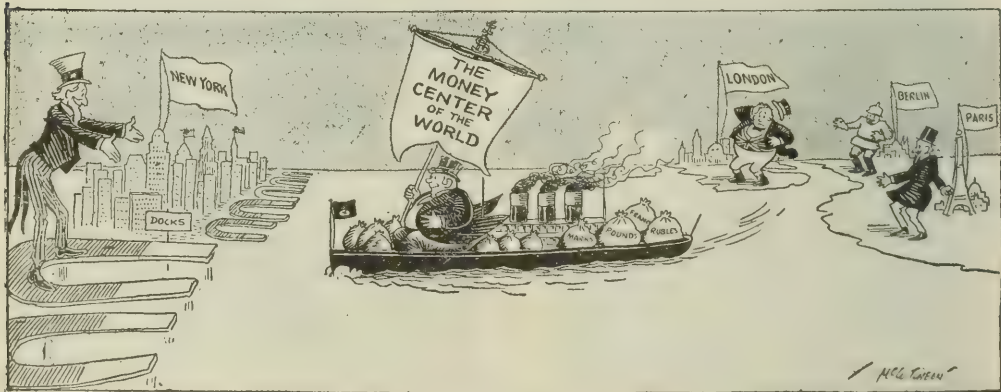
"HE CALLED ME A BAD EGG, MR. POLICEMAN"  
(Mr. William Barnes, New York, appeals to the law to punish Colonel Roosevelt for libel)  
From the *Globe* (Utica)



"NOT PERSONAL"  
From the *State Journal* (Columbus)



T. R.—"I WANTED TO REFORM HIM"  
From the *Times* (Detroit)



FINANCIAL LEADERSHIP COMING OUR WAY  
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



A TORPEDO JUST BEFORE ENTERING THE WATER

# TORPEDOES, "THE LUSITANIA," AND NAVAL ARCHITECTURE

BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFERT

(Editor of the *Scientific American*)

THE *Titanic* runs at full speed into an iceberg. Her hull is gashed at the bow; her forward compartments fill; she sinks,—but only after four hours. Some fifteen hundred lives are lost simply because there are not enough lifeboats. The *Audacious*, a British battleship in which technical imagination has incorporated every refinement of hull construction, strikes a mine. She, too, stays afloat for hours,—so long that not a man is lost. A German submarine lies in wait for the *Lusitania* and hurls a torpedo at her from a range of half a mile. The liner sinks in less than twenty minutes; hundreds drown, despite abundant lifeboats, partly because there is no time to escape, partly because the list of the vessel prevents the launching of some of the boats.

Surely we have puzzling contradictions enough in these three instances of marine disaster. Why should a *Titanic*, a vessel compared with which Noah's Ark was a model of safety, remain afloat longer than a *Lusitania* built under the supervision of the British Admiralty on the lines of an auxiliary cruiser and therefore with an eye to extraordinary conditions which no ordinary passenger-carrying vessel is likely to encounter even in time of war?

Against a modern torpedo even the stanchest battleship is not secure. Her armor belt does not extend sufficiently far below the waterline to save her; she is as vulnerable as any transatlantic liner. All this naval architects realized long ago. If

the torpedoed battleship is to remain afloat she must be subdivided into many compartments, most of which must be filled before she can sink. The *Audacious* had hundreds of such compartments; the *Lusitania* somewhat more than thirty. To this more minute subdivision of the great superdreadnought her crew owe their lives.

But why not carry out the same principle, it may be asked, in the *Lusitania*? She was supposed to be an auxiliary cruiser. Why was she not built absolutely like an auxiliary cruiser? The answer is to be found in the purposes to which a passenger ship and a battleship are applied.

On an ocean liner the minute subdivision of a warship's interior cannot be adopted without seriously interfering with the placing and operation of the large boiler and engine equipment. A compromise had to be effected between the principles that govern the construction of battleships and high-speed passenger ships. One of the structural elements which the British Admiralty insisted upon in the case of the *Lusitania* and the *Mauretania*,—an element which had it been present in the *Titanic* might have saved her,—was a longitudinal torpedo bulkhead with coal bunkers filling the space between this bulkhead and the side of the vessel.

In other words, a hull was placed within a hull, and thousands of tons of coal were bunkered between them exactly as they are on a warship. If the *Lusitania* had not been thus designed, she would probably have sunk



even in less time than she did sink. Her design was such that she was rightly considered one of the safest vessels afloat,—immune against any ordinary accident of the sea. She might even have remained afloat if a single six-inch shell had exploded within her hold; but against a torpedo she was helpless, simply because, as a passenger ship provided with some of the features of an auxiliary cruiser, it was unreasonable to expect of her buoyancy which would be extraordinary even in a warship.

It is said that the *Lusitania* carried many cases of ammunition and that her end was hastened by their explosion. To consider that question is futile. A single torpedo, properly directed, would be absolutely sufficient to bring about her destruction in less than half an hour. Let it not be forgotten that the art of making high explosives and of fashioning weapons with which to project them had been developed with more pertinacity than the art of building safe ships. The *Lusitania* was a fine vessel,—one of the finest that has ever been built; the torpedo which sent her to the bottom was much finer in its evil way, because it represented not the destructive talent of the period when the *Lusitania* was built, but the misapplied genius of to-day. There is good reason to believe that in the war-head of the latest German torpedo over four hundred pounds of the deadliest high explosive that the chemist can make are packed. The most diabolical submarine mine contains a charge of not more than five hundred pounds. The *Lusitania* was therefore subjected to a far severer test than the *Audacious*; the very heart of her was blown out.

Not even the designer of warships is likely to profit technically by the *Lusitania's* de-

struction and still less the designer of passenger-carrying craft. As an auxiliary cruiser she could not be expected to survive so frightful an attack; as a passenger ship even less could be demanded of her. If the British Admiralty were to subsidize another *Lusitania* to-morrow it is not likely that she would be a better or a safer craft, either from the naval officer's or the transatlantic ship-owner's point of view. Primarily a passenger-carrying vessel, she was a stanch, safe vessel to which even the most timorous might in ordinary times entrust their lives with confidence.

The *Lusitania* was a 25-knot ship. When she met her end she was steaming at 18 knots. Some thought that in her speed lay her salvation—that a submarine which could move at little more than twelve knots at the surface and still less below could hardly hope to torpedo the fastest liner ever built. Under ordinary circumstances that belief might have been justified. But the *Lusitania* sped to her doom with the unwitting assistance of the British Admiralty. Her course had been laid out for her,—a course from which she was not allowed to swerve, and which had, no doubt, been carefully observed and plotted by watchful German submarines. No matter how fast she was steaming it was a mere matter of triangulation to dispatch her almost automatically. Her speed was known at least approximately; the position which a submarine must occupy in order to deliver a fatal blow could be fixed upon with fair certainty in that constricted course; the moment when the deadliest torpedo yet devised should be released could be estimated with some approach to mathematical nicety. No wonder speed had ceased to be an adequate protection.



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"U 36" SIGNALLING "STOP" TO A DUTCH LINER  
(First picture taken of a German submarine with its tender)

# GERMANY'S NEW OFFENSIVE IN MAY

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. GERMANY TAKES THE OFFENSIVE AGAIN

**I**N no month since August did German armies more completely dazzle the whole world by their shining achievements than in May. Lord Kitchener had said that the war would begin on May 1. The world had looked with eager anticipation toward the western battle-front for the "Spring drive" which was to oust German armies from France, shake their hold upon Belgium, break open the gateway into Alsace.

Instead, in the closing days of April one more great German offensive burst upon the Allied front between the Lys and the North Sea, for a moment broke the lines of the French troops holding the gap between the Belgians and the British, crowded back the British upon Ypres, carried forward their lines beyond the point reached in the furious Battle of Flanders in October and November and supplied the most considerable military operations since the opening campaigns.

Far more considerable, if less appreciated, was the German campaign along the Carpathians. In April the Allied and neutral observers were considering the consequences of the arrival of Russian troops in the Hungarian Plain, the victory of the Czar's armies in the colossal Battle of the Carpathians seemed already assured. But by the middle of May the Russian defeat in Galicia had become a disaster comparable to Lodz or the Mazurian Lakes. The sole question that remained to be answered was whether the Russians could hold the line of the San, to which they had been driven, or would have to evacuate all of Galicia.

In sum, in a single month the Germans, sending their main eastern masses to the aid of their Austrian allies, had transformed the whole face of affairs on the Galician battle-front. The chance of a Russian invasion of Hungary had been as completely removed as the proposed invasion of Silesia in November, which yielded to the famous campaign of Hindenburg from the Wartha to the Bzura.

Measured by what it actually accomplished, it is impossible to contest the German claim that the latest offensive in the Carpathians and on the Galician Plain must remain a marvelous example of supreme military skill, a campaign Napoleonic in its achievement and far surpassing the Napoleonic standards in size, in numbers, in extent of battle-front.

Such qualifications as may be made with regard to the western offensive,—and it was in fact inferior to the noise it made in the press at the moment,—are necessarily lacking in any impartial review of the eastern operations. For the fourth time, when Russian advance had become perilous to them or to their ally, the Germans launched against the Russians a determined and tremendous drive, and for the fourth time the Russian losses passed the 100,000 mark, the Russian campaign was ruined, and the Czar's armies, leaving behind them immeasurable stores of arms, ammunition, and supplies, fled to avoid utter destruction.

At the close of the period covered in this review Russian armies were endeavoring to stand where they had halted the November offensive of the Austrians, all western Galicia was lost, Austrian troops were again before Przemyśl, were pouring down into the Galician Plain from the Carpathians, were in Jaroslav and across the San at several points. In a word, the Russian campaign in Galicia had been wrecked, Russian high command was no longer dealing with the question of invasion, of offensive, but solely with that of holding territory and saving armies.

If the prospects of final victory for the Austro-German alliance worsened visibly, with the ever-mounting war spirit in Italy, if Berlin was now compelled to concede reluctantly that Bülow's mission had been a failure, if the progress of the Allied armies and fleets before the Dardanelles seemed steady, if slow, if the ultimate fall of Constantinople appeared inevitable, there was still to be found in the battle record of May a cause for German rejoicing, for new confidence that the proud boast of German mili-



tary writers that German defense could not be broken was altogether sound.

Once more Germany had confuted all her critics. Once more she had silenced the British and French commentators, who insisted that her last reserves were in the field, her maximum striking power reached, if not passed. To the suggestion that German collapse was in sight the Galician victories made prompt and crushing answer, while the onrush of German masses in Flanders demonstrated that Germany was not yet ready to accept permanently the defensive rôle on any front. Napoleon in 1814 never shone more brilliantly than German high command in May, 1915.

## II. RUSSIAN COLLAPSE

The simplest fashion in which to describe the great Carpathian and Galician operation is to use the figure of a Japanese screen. When the operations began the Russians were occupying a position wholly analogous to that outlined by the ordinary three-panelled screen. Their center faced south along the Carpathians, their right extended from the Carpathians to the Vistula along the Biala and the Dunajec Rivers. Their left bent back from the Carpathians to the Dniester north of Bukovina. German strategy consisted in holding the Russian center firm, while the two wings were bent in like the panels of the screen. As the wings were bent back it would be necessary for the Russians caught in the narrowing angles to withdraw to escape being caught between the two sides. If the Russian center did not shorten and fall back all the great army along the Carpathians might be enveloped and captured or destroyed.

Thus the main German attack was made upon the right flank from the Carpathians to the Vistula, beginning at the Biala-Dunajec front. In the last days of April the Russian lines behind these rivers and about Tarnow and Grybow were crumpled up. The enormous superiority of the heavy artillery and the overwhelming numbers of the Germans made resistance impossible and the Russians fled from the great defensive works, which they had occupied for months and fortified with the utmost care.

Russian retreat followed the roads and railways east from Tarnow and Grybow. Their objective was to reach the line of the Wisloka River, some twenty-five miles due east. This river, like the Biala-Dunajec streams, rises in the Carpathians and flows

due north across Galicia to the Vistula, supplying a second natural line of defense. But so complete was the Russian rout, so rapid the pursuit, that the Wisloka line could not be held and the Austrians and Germans stormed the trenches, forced the passage of the river at Debica, Pilzno, and Jaslo, and still pressed on.

The collapse of Russian defense at Jaslo had immediate and serious consequences. South and east of this town but a few miles the road over the Dukla Pass reaches the Galician Plain near Krosno. South of the Carpathians on this road great Russian forces had been endeavoring to enter Hungary. When the Russians fled east from Jaslo they uncovered the rear of these troops, who were facing Austro-Hungarian troops at the Hungarian entrance to the Pass.

Caught thus in a trap, large numbers of the Russians, who had been forcing the entrance into Hungary, were captured, while a fraction, so the Russians claimed, at least one division, cut their way through with heavy losses. A similar fate now threatened the Russians in the Lupkow Pass; for the Austro-German advance now pushed rapidly east toward the San. But apparently the Russians in the Lupkow were warned in time, for their retreat was reported. The broken Russian forces were now approaching their last defensive position in western Galicia, the line of the San River from Przemyśl to Jaroslav and from Przemyśl to Dubromil in the Carpathians.

But on May 15 the Austro-Germans announced that they had crossed the San north of Jaroslav, penetrated the defensive line at Dubromil, and were close to Przemyśl in the center. As yet the pursuit had not slackened and Russian defense had not stiffened sufficiently. Already the victors had regained control of both ends of the Dukla and Lupkow passes and the armies which had been fighting on the Hungarian side of the mountains to hold back Russian advance were thus automatically released and were pouring through the passes into Galicia to support the armies which had swept east from Tarnow.

Thus the Russian Carpathian campaign had gone glimmering. Precisely as Lee and Jackson had beaten in Hooker's right at Chancellorsville and compelled the retreat north of the Rapidan, the German and Austrian commanders had crushed the Russian flank and forced the Russians to draw their Carpathian armies back at top speed. Only north of the Uzok Pass did the Russians still



SCENE OF THE AUSTRO-GERMAN OPERATIONS AGAINST RUSSIA

hold any strong positions in the mountains; and retreat from this pass was inevitable, as the rear was imperilled by German advance both east and west of Przemysl.

### III. ON THE DNIESTER

Meantime a second Austro-German operation was claiming the attention of Russian command in Galicia. Returning to the figure of the Japanese screen, it will be recalled that the right panel, closing from west to east, represented the operations from the Carpathians west of the Dukla Pass to the Vistula River. The center panel may be compared to the Austrian position from the Uzok to the Beskid. Now at the same time the right panel was being closed by the drive from the Dunajec-Biala front, the left panel, extending from the Beskid Pass to the Rumanian frontier, was pushed in by Austro-German forces aiming at Lemberg and Tarnopol, as the western forces had aimed at Przemysl and Jaroslav.

Could this offensive be pushed with equal success the Russian hold in Galicia would be narrowed to a little strip of territory between the Carpathians and the Russian frontier, steadily and perilously constricting as the two wings or panels were pushed together.

Fortunately for the Russians this did not

happen. After preliminary successes the Austrian forces were brought to a halt south of the Dniester and driven back behind the Pruth. Gathering all their reserves the Russians launched a vigorous counter-offensive in this region, with the result that the Austrian line here was rapidly pressed back and all danger of an envelopment of the Russians, of the cutting of the main Lemberg-Tarnopol railway, the life-line of Russian armies in Galicia, ended. By May 15 Russian official communications reported a considerable success in this sector and the capture of more than 30,000 Austrians.

But the failure of Austrian offensive in the extreme east had only saved the Russians from ruin. There remains, as I write these lines, the grave question as to whether Russian armies can be rallied behind the San in time to defend this position. If not they will be forced back upon Lemberg and will be turned out of the last easily defensible line in Galicia. Again, while the western forces are being driven east upon Przemysl and toward Lemberg, the troops in the foothills of the Carpathians north of the crests are now being heavily pressed by Austrian armies coming up through the Uzok and Beskid and also striking at Przemysl and Lemberg.

In sum the Russian hold upon central Galicia has become very slight. All of Western



Galicia and much of the Eastern portion of that province have been lost completely. In a military sense the victory is tremendous. Its political value may be best estimated by considering the effect upon Italy and Rumania, both of which nations have been patently waiting for Austrian ruin to "rush to the succor of the victors," as one French statesman aptly described it.

At the very least, Austrian conditions have been enormously ameliorated. The chance of a Russian invasion of Hungary has been banished. If Italy now attacks, Austria can turn a portion of her victorious armies from Galicia to Istria and the Tyrol. If Italy does not attack, Austro-German troops can be pushed forward until Galicia is freed or German troops can be withdrawn to reinforce the armies now fighting desperately in France and Belgium. Once more a shining success had given the generals of the two Kaisers a breathing spell in the East.

The explanation of the Russian collapse is to be found primarily in the superiority of German artillery, German discipline, and German command. Reports that Russian ammunition is running short find partial credence. This handicap at least will vanish now that Archangel is at last open to Allied ships. But we shall do well to accept the Galician disaster as one more evidence of the facts,—so clearly demonstrated at Tannenberg, Lodz, and the Mazurian Lakes,—that neither Russian generals nor Russian soldiers are any match for the Germans, except in the single circumstance of defensive fighting in trenches, where the artillery of the two nations is approximately equal in effective power.

The foray of the Germans into the Courland, the taking of Libau, and the advance toward Riga may be accepted as relatively minor movements designed to distract Russian attention from the Galician operation, to destroy certain railway lines, to rouse a population by no means loyal, and not impossibly to bring home supplies of provisions, stored about Libau. That Germany, if victorious, means to annex the Courland is fairly certain. But the present invasion, now apparently completely checked, hardly seems a serious thrust.

Yet, again, it is necessary to remark upon the wonderful fashion in which the Germans, in the tenth month of a war of the present magnitude, have been able to multiply their offensive operations and at the same time cling to all the long stretches of lines they occupy all over Europe.

#### IV. THE SECOND BATTLE OF YPRES

After a month the military purpose of the Germans in the Second Battle of Ypres remains obscure. The moral effect was instant and in a sense lasting. This was due to several circumstances. First of all: The world was looking for a British offensive on May 1, thanks to Kitchener's phrase, but before May 1 came, the Germans launched a terrific attack, which beat about the British position in Flanders with the same fury that had marked the November fighting on the same ground.

Again, there was no place along the whole western battle-front so well known to the Allied and neutral world as the line between the Lys and the sea. Here the British had fought for more than two weeks in November when each day held out the prospect of destruction. Here the Germans had all but won a tremendous victory. Thus the press of many nations hailed the new attack as one more drive to Calais,—another rush to the Channel. Germany, in their eyes, was resuming her Autumn efforts with the same end in view and her initial advantages were hailed as the promise of ultimate success.

But did German high command expect any such result? This may be doubted. Less than 120,000 British without reserves had held this post in November without anything but the slightest trenches. Now there were five times as many British in the lines or in reserve; the ground had been fortified; and behind the Ypres position were many other lines. British artillery was no longer inferior to German. In a word, the day of rushes in the West had passed; and the British experience at Neuve Chapelle was a perfect evidence of this.

What then did Germany expect? First of all that Italian public opinion would be affected by new German efforts at the moment when her enemies had said that Germany was at the end of her resources. Then, to the German people the gain of even rods in the direction of the Channel and a victory (however inconsiderable) over the British, was bound to stir German enthusiasm as nothing else could. Finally the discouragement to the British, to the Allies, if German success were considerable, however indecisive, would be great. It might open the way to a recognition that a draw was the only possible outcome of the war.

Whatever the purpose, the Germans in the last days of April suddenly launched a tremendous attack against the Allied line just

west of Ypres. They struck the point where the British army touched the small French force holding the gap between Sir John French's troops and those of the King of the Belgians.

The attack was preceded both by an artillery fire which recalled Neuve Chapelle and the discharge of immense clouds of gas, a new detail in civilized warfare which overpowered the French soldiers, produced something approaching a panic, and resulted in the precipitate retreat of the French. This retreat had immediate and disastrous consequences to the British, whose left was instantly exposed to attack, being left in the air by the French retreat.

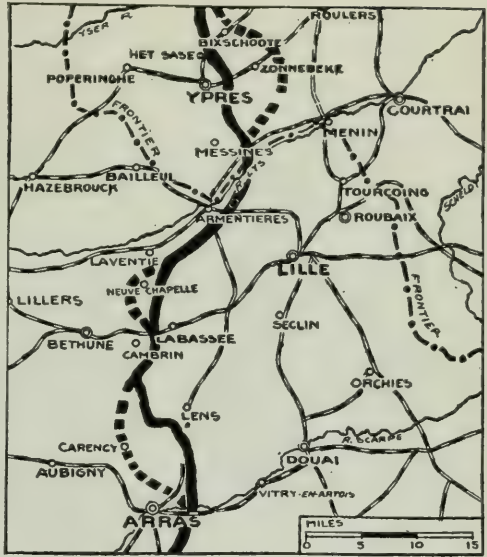
The British left was held by the Canadians, who now had their real baptism of fire. Attacked in front and rear, assailed by artillery, by gas, by machine gunfire, they displayed a steadiness, a gallantry, a determination unsurpassed in the annals of the British army,—earning them an enduring place in Imperial history. Forced to retreat, they gave ground with utmost deliberation, retook the offensive, and pushed back their pursuers from time to time. Detachments left in small towns and unable to retreat sold their lives with splendid heroism. In this struggle 7000 Canadians, nearly a quarter of the contingent, were lost.

This heroism saved the day. Presently reinforcements arrived; the German advance was halted, turned back. It had passed the Yser Canal; it had come further south and west than in the other battle. But the net profit, when the battle had ended, was the gain of two or three miles on a front of five. The whole British position in the salient about Ypres was beaten in or forced to contract to meet the new situation to the West. But the line was intact, and the road to the Channel was closed. The gain had been more considerable than that of the British at Neuve Chappelle, the attack infinitely better prepared and delivered, but the ultimate result was little different.

The real battle lasted for five days, but thereafter the Germans continued and are still, when this review is written, continuing to attack the British lines, which have on the whole Ypres front retired considerably, but stiffened as they straightened.

## V. IN ARTOIS

In the East the Germans had relieved the pressure upon their Austrian allies more than once by a counter-offensive of their own.



MAP ILLUSTRATING MOVEMENTS ON THE WESTERN FRONT IN MAY

The German pressure on the British to the east of Ypres, after the main attack to the west had flickered out, called for a similar demonstration by the French. To lessen the strain upon the British, Joffre in the second week in May delivered the most serious and successful French attack that had been made since the Battle of the Marne.

The region selected for the French attack was that between Arras and La Bassée. The objective was the city of Lens, the chief coal-producing town in France. On a front of some twenty-five miles and west of the main national road connecting Arras with Bethune, the French took the offensive about May 10. From the end of October to May the Germans had held lines on three sides of Arras, which was a salient, subject to heavy artillery fire and merely a defensive position.

North of Arras the German line had been pushed well west of that town, and its extreme point was the village of Carency, which had been heavily fortified. To the north of Carency the town of Loos, northwest of Lens, had been similarly turned into a fortress. Lens itself was some five miles behind the German front, a center of many roads and of several railroad lines, used by the Germans to send their troops forward.

The French attack moved northeast from Arras and southwest from the district west of Loos and Lens. The extreme western point of the German line was the little town of Carency, turned into a veritable fortress.





Photograph by Medem Photo Service

#### NEW FRENCH GUN FOR BREAKING THROUGH BARBED-WIRE DEFENSES

(In order to batter down the barbed-wire entanglements so extensively used for protecting intrenchments, the French have a gun [shown above] whose "shell" consists of sharpened projecting arms. This strange missile is hurled against the barbed-wire, and is then drawn back again for the next shot)



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

#### SOLDIERS, WEARING RESPIRATORS AGAINST THE FUMES OF POISONOUS GAS

(For protection against the deadly fumes of the poisonous gases that have been used in the fighting in the Western theatre of war, the soldiers have had to resort to the "respirators" which the English "Tommies" are wearing in the picture above)

On this town the French moved in three columns, breaking line after line of German trenches, steadily isolating the garrison of this town and finally capturing it, with much heavy artillery, a strong garrison, and more booty than had been taken since the days of the retreat to the Aisne.

Toward Loos material gains were made, but here the German counter-offensive resulted in the retaking of some trenches. East of Arras, again German defense was too strong to permit any material gain. But north of Arras and on the Arras-Bethune road the French advance pushed east for some three miles, after the most desperate fighting, and the German official communications, usually very reserved in the admission of ground lost, conceded that the French had made material progress.

While the recapture of Lens would have been a tremendous advantage to the French and a forward movement threatening the German position as a whole in France, it remained perfectly clear that the Artois operation was primarily to relieve the British. Upon the Ypres salient there continued to beat a storm that threatened to end in the evacuation of the town itself. This would no longer mean the loss of the Channel ports, the disaster that threatened in November, but it would mean a loss of prestige hardly to be measured by the military circumstances.

It was to distract German attention from Flanders, to compel the Germans to draw reserves from before the British to check the French, that the French effort was primarily designed. Its success was apparently due chiefly to the fact that the Germans declined to desist from their Flanders operation. Yet the limit of French advance was reached with the usual promptness. As a "nibble" it was quite as considerable as the German in the Second Battle of Ypres. In captures of artillery, men and material, it was the most considerable French victory in half a year, but as usual the operation, after the first successes, slowly died out.

More and more all these struggles were resolving themselves into artillery battles, into questions of ammunition. While the French were pushing toward Lens, the British made a new drive toward La Bassée and gave it up because they lacked the necessary ammunition, and subsequently resumed it with material but relatively unconsiderable advance. Apparently the whole problem had become one of the amount of ammunition that the attacking force could con-

centrate at a point of attack. Not to the heaviest artillery, as Napoleon had said, but to the possessor of the larger stock of ammunition, the victory seemed more and more to be assured.

On the whole the French gain in Artois was a fair counterpoise to German progress in Flanders. The May fighting in the West was a deadlock, one more repetition of the monotonous "no change" of many months. Yet it remained undeniable that the Germans, by taking the offensive in Flanders,—rolling up the Allied line from Ypres to the Yser,—had effectually dampened the enthusiastic expectation of the British audience that with May would come a general forward movement of the Allied lines. May came, it was the Germans who had been able to make the first bid for the offensive and to fill the gazettes with the reports of new progress, however slight, toward Calais, toward the Channel, toward England,—“the one foe.”

## VI. AT THE DARDANELLES

For Americans the simplest parallel to illustrate the land operations against the Dardanelles is that supplied by Long Island. In its relation to the East River, Long Island resembles that of the Gallipoli Peninsula to the Dardanelles. An invading army landing on Long Island, as the British army did in 1776, and moving north toward New York City, would pretty accurately follow the course of one Allied force,—that is, of the troops striking at the forts at the Nagara narrows in the Dardanelles,—while another landing party, coming ashore at Coney Island and moving east, would parallel the operation of the Allied regiments landed at Sed-ul-Bahr.

The Gallipoli Peninsula is some forty miles long, nowhere above fifteen miles wide, and at the point where the Turkish forts are erected on the shores of the Straits, barely five. Unlike Long Island, however, the surface of the peninsula is very rough and the hills north of Maidos and Nagara, that is, north of the Narrows, reach a height of 900 feet.

In March the fleet had reduced the forts at the entrance to the straits, at Kum Kale on the Asiatic side and Sed-ul-Bahr on the tip of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Subsequently they had moved up the straits and bombarded the forts in the narrows fifteen miles to the northeast. But despite the damage done they had not reduced the forts and

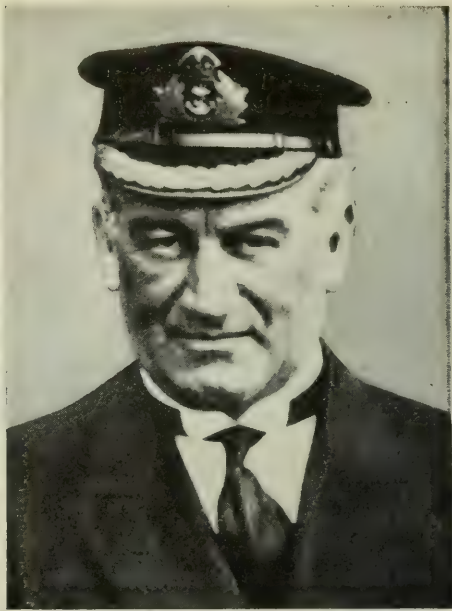




Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

GENERAL SIR IAN HAMILTON

(Commanding huge British army against the Turkish forces at the Dardanelles)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

ADMIRAL DE ROBECK

(Commanding the fleet of battleships operating against the Dardanelles)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

BRITISH MARINES TAKING POSSESSION OF A SECTION OF THE SHORE ALONG THE DARDANELLES, SHOWING AN ABANDONED TURKISH REDOUBT IN THE BACKGROUND

were unable to prevent the Turks from repairing their forts sufficiently, after each bombardment, to make forcing the straits practically impossible, as the loss of three battleships in March showed.

In this situation the Allies were compelled to resort to the same combined land-and-sea operation that we Americans employed before Santiago and the Anglo-French armies resorted to in the Crimean campaign. To supplement the fleet a most heterogeneous force was gathered, composed of Australians and New Zealanders, native colonial troops from all over the British Empire, and French troops from Africa and Senegal. These were brought first to Egypt and then to the islands at the mouth of the Dardanelles. This army was commanded, first by General D'Amade, a French officer who had won fame in Morocco, and then by General Ian Hamilton.

The first step was the landing of troops at the two points just abreast of the entrance of the Straits, Sed-ul-Bahr and Kum Kale,—the British at the former, the French at the latter. At the same time a landing was made at Enos, across the Gulf of Saros, which was to serve much the same purpose as Guantanamo in our own Santiago campaign. At about the same time other forces were landed north and east of the entrance to the straits and facing the narrows and the Turkish forts commanding them.

The landing operations were exceedingly costly in lives, and after a few days the French were withdrawn from Kum Kale and General D'Amade recalled. But the British were successful in pushing a line across the Gallipoli Peninsula from the straits to the Gulf of Saros and slowly advanced up the peninsula, their flanks covered by the fire of the fleet. At the same time the troops opposite Nagara pushed east and a new operation was begun at the base of the peninsula at the lines of Bulair, where the distance between the straits and the Ægean is less than three miles and the whole distance can be swept by the guns of the Allied fleet. The purpose of this was to cut the Turkish line of communications by land and isolate the forces on the peninsula.

After the report of the successful landing of the Allied troops the official statements about the operations were exceedingly meager and unsatisfactory. Turkish bulletins claimed one complete triumph after another and forecast immediate and final victory each day. Berlin reports were far more matter-of-fact, but described the Turks as holding

fast. Athens, on its side, described the Allied advance in a fashion which delighted rather than convinced the London audience.

What actually appeared to be the situation, in the third week of May, was that the Allies had made some progress toward the shore of the straits at Nagara, but had not yet been able to gain the hills, which are the backbone of the peninsula and from which their artillery could batter down the Turkish forts. There was every indication that the Turks were fighting with a determination and a skill which showed the presence of German commanders. Their losses were serious, but those of the Allies were conceded to be heavy. As yet the outcome remained in doubt.

At the same time Russian aeroplanes were throwing bombs into Constantinople, the Russian Black Sea fleet was giving signs of renewed activity, and two British submarines were reported to have penetrated into the Sea of Marmora and to have sunk a number of Turkish transports. By way of balance the Turks accounted for the British battleship *Goliath*, an old boat, which carried down with her more than 500 of her officers and crew a few days after the Austrians had torpedoed and sunk the French cruiser *Leon Gambetta*, in the Straits of Otranto, at the mouth of the Adriatic. So far Constantinople had proved the most expensive of all Allied operations in ships and the end still seemed far off.

## VII. AMMUNITION AND THE "LUSITANIA"

While the main problem raised by the sinking of the *Lusitania* lies outside the field of the reporter of military and naval operations, there is one detail which deserves his attention. The recent months of the war have fully established one thing. The contestant willing and able to expend unlimited ammunition and sacrifice a large number of lives can at any point in the western battle-front harvest local advantages from an offensive. This is the lesson of all the "nibbling" operations on both sides,—the lesson of Neuve Chapelle and of the second Battle of Ypres.

At Neuve Chapelle the British burned in three days more powder than in the whole Boer War. Their operation to support the French advance to Lens, in May, broke down because of a shortage of ammunition. Now in this situation it became imperative for both contestants to do everything pos-



sible first to increase their own supplies of ammunition, and second to interrupt the supplies of their opponent.

Exactly here is where the advantage of sea-power is decisive. Thanks to it, England and France (and also Russia, when her ports are ice-free) are able to draw on the whole neutral world for ammunition. In the United States, the manufacture has increased with the utmost rapidity. In effect, all powder-producing neutrals,—but chiefly the United States,—have been transformed into allies of the opponents of Germany, while still acting in perfect accord with the spirit and letter of the laws prescribing the duties of neutrals.

In the minds of many, particularly in the minds of many Germans, this aid is likely to prove the decisive factor in the war. Thanks to the unlimited resources of the United States for the production of ammunition, the advantage of the Allies over Germany in the matter of ammunition seems bound to increase until it becomes overwhelming on the western front; and it is therefore imperative that the stream should be interrupted. To do this Germany has no other weapon than the submarine.

In February, when Germany had put her submarine "blockade" into effect, there had been much Allied talk about "starvation" in Germany,—idle talk, as was soon proven. In May there is no evidence that Germany is lacking in food supply or likely in any immediate present to need food from the outside to keep her civilian population alive. But to raise the question of food seemed to the Germans in February a method of stirring the sympathy of neutrals, and of making a case against the British.

Yet it is plain that then and now the real question is not one of food but of ammunition. Germany is fighting for her life. Whatever else may be said of the rights and wrongs of the conflict, it is patent that this conflict daily becomes more terrible in the perils for the Germans, if they are defeated. To the German mind, the ammunition coming to the Allies chiefly from the United States may decide the war. Many British observers and not a few Americans hold the same view. Hence the determination to stop the inflow of ammunition into France and England at any cost. This better explains the incident of the *Lusitania* than any other reason. Nothing could justify that affair. Of this all Americans are certain. But the explanation found in the ammunition situation in part explains German recklessness.

We shall do well to think of the German point of view in this respect. International law was written before the submarine; and, before the submarine, Germany would have been helpless in the face of British sea-power. Now she has in her undersea boats one weapon, not sufficient to interrupt the whole flow of ammunition, but conceivably sufficient to reduce the amount materially. British passenger ships carrying this ammunition also transport American passengers. To the Germans, these passengers are comparable with the women and children used by troops occasionally and in defiance of all international law to protect them from the fire of the enemy, when they are on hostile soil.

Between the *Lusitania* tragedy and the more recent conflicts in the western battlefield, there is then a very clear connection. Since battles are going to those who have the larger supply of shells, the Germans see defeat possible, perhaps probable, if they cannot prevent America from supplying their enemies. To prevent this they have adopted a course unworthy of the worst savages; but it remains patent that had they endeavored to persuade the American Government to prevent its nationals from traveling on belligerent ships carrying ammunition, using ordinary diplomatic channels and methods, they might easily have obtained sympathetic hearing for a case that is not without its appeal, not under existing international law, but under circumstances which have insured the repeal of much of this code, when peace shall come.

## VIII. ITALY MAKES UP HER MIND

Of more permanent value than the tremendous German victory in the Carpathians was the decision of the Italian people for war. From the outbreak of the general struggle to the coming of May the case of Italy against Austria had been in the hands of the diplomats. Prince Von Bülow, representing the German Emperor, had labored, first, to persuade the Italians to remain faithful to their ally and share in the war; second, to remain neutral; finally, to accept as the price for neutrality the scanty concessions offered by Austria.

When the conflict broke out Italy was unready for war. Her army was in far worse shape than that of France; her financial situation, thanks to the African adventure, was such as to make war highly undesirable. For the moment Italy was willing to leave the



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

#### A VIEW OF TRIESTE AND ITS EXCELLENT HARBOR

(The city of Trieste, on the northeast coast of the Adriatic, with its fine harbor, valuable eastern trade, and great naval importance, has been one of the most prominent places involved in the *ante-bellum* negotiations between Austria and Italy)



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

#### A DETACHMENT OF AUSTRIAN TROOPS DETRAINING AT A WAYSIDE VILLAGE ON THE ITALIAN FRONTIER



question to diplomacy, but always with the understanding that unless the "unredeemed" lands were won back by negotiations, war between Italy and the central European Empires was certain, when Italy was ready.

Characteristic Austrian obstinacy and excessive Italian appetite combined to make accommodation impossible. Italy asked the whole seacoast of the Hapsburg Empire, including Trieste, Fiume, and Dalmatia, the Austrians offered the Italian-speaking communes of the Tyrol, a parcel of territory on the west bank of the Isonzo with Gorizia, and certain islands in the Adriatic, with the grant to Trieste of privileges which would insure the permanence of its Italian character under Austrian rule.

For a pacific solution of the dispute the Italian statesman Giolitti worked with great earnestness. But in the face of the rising popular emotion war became inevitable. Salandra, the premier, and Sonnino, the advocate of war, overborne by the parliamentary influence of Giolitti, suddenly precipitated a crisis by resigning.

Instantly from one end of the peninsula to the other the old Garibaldi spirit flamed up.

Having just celebrated the anniversary of the sailing of "The Thousand," the Italian people gave themselves over to a protest against peace, which ended in riots, disorders, a popular demonstration that imperilled the peace of the kingdom. Bowing to this will, the King declined to accept the resignation of the Salandra Cabinet. Giolitti went into practical exile. By a referendum of acclamation Italy had pronounced for war.

As these lines are written, on May 19, the declaration has not yet come, but Berlin despatches have already announced that only a miracle can avert war. Martial law has been proclaimed in Italy and the government has taken over the railroads and asked American Ambassadors to care for its interests in Berlin and Vienna. Mobilization is proceeding and it is the expectation of the world that when the Parliament assembles, on May 20, it will be asked by the cabinet for the final authorization which will be followed by a declaration of war.

What then will be the effect of Italy's entrance? First of all, it will bring to the Allies a million of trained soldiers. It will relieve the pressure now exerted on the routed Russians in Galicia and call for new contributions of German troops to defend Austria. In moral effect it will be even more impressive than in its immediate military influence. In the tenth month of a war that has become, at the least, a deadlock, the Allies gain a new army, a new nation. Nor is it at all improbable that Italy will be promptly followed by Rumania, or that the appearance of Italian troops at the Dardanelles will enlist Greece. Even Bulgaria may now find the time come to consult future interests rather than past grievances.

That Italy can hope to force her way far into Austria now is unlikely. The nature of her frontier, the tremendous Austrian redoubt of the Trentine Tyrol, rising out of the Po Valley, precludes the hope of immediate advance on Vienna, perhaps even on Trieste, defended against her fleet by the submarines which accounted for the *Gambetta*. Not impossibly the actual entrance of Italy will be followed by a tremendous Austro-German offensive aimed at Verona and Milan,—an effort to seize Verona, reoccupy the old Quadrilateral, hold the banks of the Adige and the Mincio. German "terribleness" may hope to strike terror into the hearts of Italians by a successful campaign in the Po Valley, made possible by recalling the victorious corps from Galicia.

Two months earlier, on the morning of the fall of Przemyśl, the entrance of Italy would have had disastrous results for Austria. For her own sake, for the cause of her new allies, Italy, if she now enters, will come too late. Russia has been defeated, has suffered the most terrible disaster of the war. The fighting in the west has adjourned the hopes of a "Spring drive." The Dardanelles campaign is approaching a deadlock. Italy will not "rush to the succor of the victor," she will enter a perilous path, driven by popular demand and secular grievances. She brings new hope to the Allies, but her share of the burden is bound to be considerable. Venice and Milan may know the destruction of Rheims and Louvain.





Photograph by Medem

FRENCH RESERVISTS, CLASS OF 1916, LEAVING FOR THE FRONT

# AS WITNESSED IN FRANCE

BY ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE

(Former United States Senator from Indiana)

[The second article by ex-Senator Beveridge, giving his personal observations in the countries now at war. The first article, "As Witnessed in Germany," appeared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for May.—THE EDITOR.]

THE revealing light of this world-changing conflict has discovered a new France, a strong, quiet, serious France, earnest and elevated in character. There has been a new birth of idealism; certainly this is true among the intellectual classes, and in the higher social circles. The French man and woman, from these sections of the French people, declare that this moral and spiritual phenomenon, so conspicuous and undeniable even to the casual observer, is nothing new nor strange; they assert, on the contrary, that this French attitude of mind and soul, its eyes fixed upon the stars instead of upon the gutter, is the old, the real, and the true French spirit which has been there all the time though unnoticed by an idle world bent on gaiety.

"Paris and all France," said one of the old Faubourg nobility, a traveled gentleman of serious purpose, as unlike as day is from night the decadent and ridiculous creatures who have been held up to us Americans as

types of this ancient class,— "Paris and all France," said he, "is like a noble old house of granite, with simple, beautiful lines, its foundations fixed in rock, which has been covered over with an absurd and ugly stucco. The passer-by saw only this grotesque exterior, and judged the house accordingly. We ourselves were almost deceived; we had almost forgotten the materials and outlines of the real structure. But, at the shock of war, this stucco has fallen away, and there stands the real Paris and the real France, solid, simple, beautiful, and enduring."

## EXIT THE PARIS OF YESTERDAY

Such are typical interpretations of present-day France and its capital. Whether accurate or not, the future alone will disclose. But it is the calm estimate of the best thought, and the firm conviction of the highest character among the French people. It is felt even by the cautious observer trying to hold a steady balance of just proportion



that one statement at least may be ventured with confidence: The American visitor to or resident of the French capital never again will see the Paris to which they were accustomed. The old city of vanity and show, of surface and neurotic delights, of *ennui* and over-fashion, has passed away. The intellectual pessimist, the *blasé* in life and character, that tinselled gaiety in conduct which the sated mistook for pleasure,—all this has gone.

None of these things is in vogue any more in Paris. The American who thought he knew the Paris of yesterday will return to find himself amid new surroundings. The serious, the thoughtful, the idealistic, even the religious make up the moral, spiritual, and intellectual atmosphere of this transformed city. A new spirit of industry, too, is in the air,—or rather industry in a new guise; industry in the sense that everybody has something to do, everybody is doing something, and that something, noble, pure, unspotted of gain, and everybody is finding that the joy of unselfish doing is sweet and wholesome. To put it in terms which the American frequenter of Paris will better understand, let us say that the smart, the flippant, the irreverent, the idle are no longer fashionable.

"Our feelings are so deep that we can find no words to express them," said M. Bergson, the noted philosopher, the leader of the new school of French thought. "Our emotion and our purpose," said he, "can manifest themselves only by a great calmness, which almost may be said to be exaltation."

All this was visual to the visitor in Paris toward the end of the winter of 1915, for Paris was a place of sadness and mourning, but also of heroism and resolve. Her streets were deserted of young men, as indeed is true of every town and city of France, and of her fields and vineyards also. They are all at the front, or in reserve depots, waiting for the order to launch themselves into the conflict.

"Yes," said a highly informed and moderate-minded young woman of one of the best families of France, "Paris is deserted, and we are proud of it. We would not have our men stop behind,—not one of them. Where should they be, if not at the front?"

And Paris does seem deserted to one who knew the Paris of old, with its crowded streets, its overflowing cafés, the whirling activity of its thoroughfares. There are many people about, to be sure, and sometimes the *grands boulevards* seem well filled. But the Parisian visitor of a year ago would

hardly recognize the French capital of today, so great is the disparity between the teeming life of the place then and its comparative meagerness now. Also, the atmosphere of gloom is so great that one newly arrived feels it instantly and keenly, although the sensation wears off after a week or two under the anesthetic of time and custom. This feeling of depression which falls upon the visiting observer is deepened by the darkened streets at night; for while there is light enough to make one's way about the central and more frequented thoroughfares, yet the city as a whole is very sombre after sunset. An American thoroughly familiar with his Paris found great difficulty in making his way on foot from a residential quarter to the hotel section. No blazing arc lamps longer flare, and the system of electric lighting which was wont to make the Paris nights so brilliant awaits the issue of war to resume its illuminating work.

#### HOSPITALS ON EVERY HAND

Then, too, the hospitals. Hospitals! Hospitals! To one unaccustomed to such scenes and familiar with the Paris of old, everywhere there appear to be these refuges of the stricken. Along the Champs Elysées well-known and palatial hotels are now the abodes of wounded men, and uniformed nurses have taken the place of the hotel attendants. Private houses facing this world-famed thoroughfare are now also devoted to the housing of the injured. This, indeed, is true all over the city. Calling upon a gentleman of great wealth living in one of the most extensive and luxurious houses of Paris, one found one's self among the odors of disinfectants, and the women members of the family arrayed in the costume of nurses. On side streets, too, the sign of the Red Cross or other symbols advertise these stations of succor.

And now, at the date of this writing, March 15, 1915, comes the order from General Joffre himself to prepare 150,000 additional hospital beds against the need which the spring campaign, so shortly to begin, will bring in its sanguinary wake. This in Paris alone, where also the boys' schools have been taken over to serve as hospitals! Such is the grim prospect the French people consciously and bravely face!

#### WHY FRANCE IS CONFIDENT

But while Paris is depressed it cannot be said that the feeling is caused by despair; the gloom does not seem to be the child of



BARGES ON THE RIVER SEINE USED AS HOSPITALS  
(Note the Red Cross insignia painted on the decks of the middle cabins)

hopelessness. On the contrary, the French firmly believe that the Allies will win, and the grounds for this faith we shall examine presently. But France has lost much blood; she is losing more all the time, and she knows that soon, very soon, the life current is to issue from every pore; and France has no blood to lose. It will take her a long time to supply the crimson strength already poured out so prodigally and with such abandoned valor. It will take a long, long time,—generations,—to replace the men who must fall before this war ends,—a fact so well understood in France and especially by French women that one of the reconstructive results of this war already apparent is the purpose and resolve now openly stated by representative women of the highest class, especially among the old aristocracy of whom America never hears, that the French family should and will be very much larger in the future than it has been in the past. The melancholy feeling flows from the carnage already wrought and the greater havoc which they know must come. Even more it flows from their constant knowledge that the enemy is on French soil, that the war in the West is being waged in France itself, and the very richest part of France at that.

But the French have no doubt that

they will win,—or rather, that the Allies will be victorious. For they frankly admit, and the admission is infinitely to their credit, that, standing alone, they could not prevail against their mighty eastern neighbor. They even concede that Germany probably could overcome France and Russia put together. But, they contend, that with England added, Germany has no chance against these three greatest powers of Europe combined.

#### FRENCH ESTIMATES OF GERMAN AMBITION

And the French are ready to do their part in this gigantic partnership of war; they already have done far more than their just share. Not in the most glorious days of the great Napoleon did the sons of France pour out their blood with greater prodigality than their descendants have done up to the present hour of this mighty conflict. And they do not begrudge it; they are willing to give still more.

"To the last man!" exclaimed one of the first intellects of France.

For they are obsessed by the conviction that defeat means the extinction of France,—its physical extinction. They really believe that France will disappear from the map of Europe if Germany wins. It has become an *idée fixe*.

The roots of this astonishing conception



of German purposes and policy run back to the fateful year of 1870, and are fixed in the soil of Alsace and Lorraine. The French never have forgotten the taking of those two provinces. In latter years, they imagined they had forgiven it; but the war revived the sleeping rancor; the doctrine of *revanche*, preached for so many long years, though latterly abandoned, left its seed of dragon's teeth in the French heart; and,—so runs the French thought,—if Germany wrongfully took Alsace and Lorraine by force when she won then, what will she not wrongfully take by force if she wins now? Certainly, Flanders, Artois, Champagne, and Picardy, the richest portion of France, and that part of the coast of Normandy upon the Channel, down to and including the harbor of Le Havre. This is the very least which the French imagine Germany would exact from them if victorious. Amazing as it may seem to Americans, and surprised as the Germans will be to learn it, it nevertheless is true that there are those in France who think that Germany would take the whole country if she could, yes, even to the Pyrenees.

And they are perfectly sure that Germany is out gunning for French colonies; and these, very rich, very profitable, and very well administered, are very dear to the French heart no less than to the French pocketbook. Just how this French way of thinking developed will be an engaging theme for the historian. Certainly the French think that the Morocco affair and the Agadir incident sustain their opinion. What they describe as "Germany's pounding on the table with a sword" got sadly on their nerves; for they are a highly sensitive people.

#### WAS FRANCE IN DANGER OF "GERMANIZATION"?

Then, too, the more thoughtful believed that France was already being "Germanized."

"German workmen have steadily been taking the place of French laborers, here in France, here in Paris," said one of the most dependable of this class. "German business men were rooting out French business men. The Germans were even buying up our land. This has been going on all over France," he continued. "And with them, these multitudes of Germans brought their industrial methods, their ideals of life, their so-called 'Kultur.' It is a fact that if this had gone on, it would not have been a great many

years until they would have taken France."

This statement was so astounding that careful inquiry was made as to its accuracy. Without a single exception, it was confirmed by those questioned concerning it. "It is quite true," said an American friend of thirty years' standing, who is one of the best-informed men in the country, and whose conservative reliability and cautious understatement are his principal characteristics. "It is quite true," he testified. "For example, many of the largest dress-making establishments, which American women suppose to be French, are in reality owned by Germans."

A foreign business man, manager of a large plant in a certain part of the Republic, testified that "the Germans were taking France in an industrial and a business way." Asked as to how this was possible, he explained, from his own experience, that it was due to the infinite pains the Germans took to supply just what their customers or clients desired, their patient labor, and prudent foresight.

#### FRENCH REASONS FOR GERMANY'S WAR-MAKING

It will be strange to the American reader that, in view of this rapid and solid industrial, financial, and business progress of Germans in France, which was giving Germany much if not all that she could acquire by successful conquest, the French, nevertheless, should think that Germany is making war to seize French territory, and that it has been Germany's long-settled plan to do so. This will appear especially puzzling to Americans when they reflect that it is the best French opinion that German labor, capital, and business were succeeding so well in France that, as French thinkers believed, it was only a question of time, and a very short time, when France would have been "Germanized," as these thinkers term it, by such peaceful methods.

Indeed, French business men and scholars I conversed with could give no explanation entirely understandable to the American mind. When asked why Germany should resort to war to obtain what she was already getting by peaceful methods, the answers were that it is the German habit of mind to take physically and by force the thing desired; or that it was the love of conquest for its own sake; or that it was the insane ambition of the Emperor to rule; or that it was the working out of the supposed German philosophy to dominate the world;



FRENCH RECRUITS DRILLING NEAR PARIS

or that it was a part of Germany's plan to be the first, the leading, the compelling power of Europe.

#### WHY FRANCE HERSELF IS IN THE WAR

As to why France is in the war, most will tell you that it is because she was invaded. But not all give this as the primary cause; and indeed most, after the frontiers of conversation have been passed, concede that France would have entered the conflict for deeper reasons, even though she had not been invaded. It is admitted that her alliance with Russia would have forced her to take up arms to aid her ally, as a matter of national honor. Stronger even than this is the statesman's view that France had to fight to save the principle of the equilibrium of Europe, the balance of power which Germany's growing strength already threatened, and which her victory over Russia would have overthrown. Running parallel with this and with equal influence in the French mind was the feeling, yes, even the deliberately thought-out conclusion, that if Russia was unsupported, Germany would defeat Russia and then attack and conquer France next, and after that undertake the conquest of England. "It would have been our turn next," is the common expression; and "It would have been our turn next," is what is said in England.

The belief entertained by some Germans that France's enormous investments in Russia, which would be imperiled if not lost in

case of Russian defeat, was a deciding factor in determining France to engage in the struggle, is hotly denied by every Frenchman, and, to the careful observer, seems unjustified. German business men estimate that the French have invested more than 20,000,000,000 of francs (4,000,000,000 of dollars) in various ways in Russia; painstaking inquiry inclines one to the opinion that this is at least 5,000,000,000 francs (\$1,000,000,000) too high. The best-informed financial men in France, who are not French citizens or of French blood, place the maximum of French investments of every kind in Russia at 15,000,000,000 of francs (\$3,000,000,000); but it seems reasonably certain that, no matter what the amount, France was not drawn into the war by the fear of losing her Russian investments, nor even influenced by that consideration. The French are not "fighting for their money."

#### FIGHTING FOR NATIONALITY

Just as the Germans believe that they are fighting for their lives, for their very existence as a nation, which they think the Allies under the leadership and direction of Great Britain are trying to crush, so the French believe that they are fighting for their lives and their existence as a nation, which they consider Germany is trying to crush. Especially is this true of the higher classes and the intellectual circles.

Whether this thought and feeling that French nationality will be extinguished,



French culture and ideals smothered, and the French country physically seized and occupied in case of German victory, which so saturates the mind and heart of intellectual France, extends downward to the grass-roots, and is entertained to the same extent or at all by the mass of the common people, is not certain. Nor is it for the present moment material.

Only one thing may be said for sure of the French masses: They know that the enemy is on French soil, and they are resolved to drive him out of French territory. Whatever the reasons which brought France to take part in this Armageddon, the present feeling among all French men and women is one of heroic resolve that counts no cost too high, no sacrifice too great. This resolve is noble, inspiring, beautiful, and even touching in its spirit of self-sacrifice and high purpose. There is something almost of religion in the exaltation of sentiment, especially among the higher classes, who mean to go and will go to the very end, to the very last centime, to the very last drop of blood,—literally that, not figuratively, but literally.

#### PARALYSIS TO THE MAILED FIST!

And the end, to these upper classes, is not merely the expulsion of the Germans from France; to them the driving out of the invader is only the beginning. It is not even the recovery of Alsace and Lorraine; "that goes without saying," or, "that is not to be discussed,—Alsace and Lorraine, of course." Their purpose is to annihilate the military power of Germany: "to destroy military Germanism, root and branch," as one French statesman put it with flashing eyes. "We are going to make another war on France impossible; we are willing to die now, ourselves, rather than that our children should have to go through the furnace." Such are common expressions, and they are sincere.

Just how they will break the German sword and make the German hand powerless to grasp and the German arm nerveless to wield it is not clear. The bitterness towards the German Imperial Government affords a hint. And certain it is that they are making maps in France,—redrawing the existing boundaries of all central Europe. Their quick and logical imagination has leaped to the reestablishment of nations. Germany is to be dismembered, or at least shorn of what the French think is not hers and confined within what the French contend to be her rightful limits,—and something more even then is to be done with her; Austria is

to be torn all to pieces and distributed piecemeal according to race; Poland is to be made a kingdom with the Russian Czar on her throne; Turkey is to be divided among the Allies, and so forth and so on. It is the same map you find later which has been drawn in England, where map-making is also a favorite pastime.

#### WHAT THE COMMON MAN THINKS

But the views of the common people on this point are not so clear. "The peasant knows only that France is invaded," remarked an uncommonly intelligent French business man, "and they want to put the Germans out of France. Of course, they want Alsace and Lorraine back, too, now they are at it. But further than this, I cannot say. The peasants are very ignorant and know only what they are told." A business man, not of French blood but uncommonly well informed concerning the French common people, and especially what he terms "the money-making middle class," gave it as his opinion that these classes of the French people would not be hot for the continuance of the war, once the Germans were back in their own country, and certainly not if Alsace and Lorraine were recovered. "I have heard members of the money-making, money-saving *bourgeoisie* say dozens of times," he commented, "that the war is getting to be very long, that they wished it was over, that they were not doing any business, and so forth." And this particular man was very severe upon this "money-making middle class," "for," said he, "the Germans ought to be smashed and smashed forever." Asked whether he thought that any decided reverse would still further weaken this class, he answered with bitterness: "Yes, undoubtedly; they want to get to making money again."

On the contrary, consider this statement of a French business man, conservative and reliable and belonging to the upper reaches of "the money-making middle class." "Certainly we shall go on to the end! Will the retirement of the Germans from France satisfy us? No, indeed,—and they will not retire; we shall put them out. Will we be content with Alsace and Lorraine? Certainly not! They are ours, anyhow. I am an Alsatian, you know. What will satisfy us? Crushing Germany so that she never can make war on us or anybody else again! How far am I willing to go myself? My two sons are at the front. They may be killed; they probably will be killed. I am prepared

to give them gladly to destroy the menace of Germany. If I had more I should give more!" No one could doubt the deep earnestness of this man, an old acquaintance of stainless character and moderate, conservative mind. He had been a soldier himself in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71 and had left his beloved Alsace rather than live under the rule of the conqueror.

And here is the comment of a woman who kept a bookstall and has two sons in the army: "We have been living in terror all the time,—the terror of war. We can't stand it any longer. We've got to get rid of it forever. We had rather die than go on living as we have for the last forty years. We have been under the menace of Germany all that time. I hate war, all war. I want this war to go on until there can be no more wars. How far am I willing to go? I have given my two sons!"

#### THE SPIRIT OF THE TRENCHES

There are soldiers in the trenches who seem to reflect little or none of this spirit. Their letters are full of courage and kindness,—at least this is true of those falling under personal inspection.

A letter from a French soldier to his mother, full of endearing tenderness, describing the hardships of the trenches, "with water up to our shoulders," assures her that "your letters always do me good and give me fresh courage, which I need, for the time passes so slowly. Fortunately there are others more courageous than I and who keep up the spirits of the rest. *Mon dieu*, what a struggle! And for a result which will probably be not very brilliant. But we will fight to the very end. . . . I leave you to go to sleep in my cave, at least protected against those devilish bullets. When will their awful whistling stop?"

All French men and women personally conversed with are absolutely certain that the Allied powers will be overwhelmingly victorious and that the Germans will be hopelessly and irretrievably beaten. The grounds for this belief are substantial, material, and to the eye of purely practical calculation, weighty.

First of all, as has been suggested, France's belief that Germany will be defeated is not based alone or even chiefly on French resources, French valor, or French spirit, although she has displayed and is showing an abundance of all these. French courage and French steadfastness have won for France anew the admiration of the world



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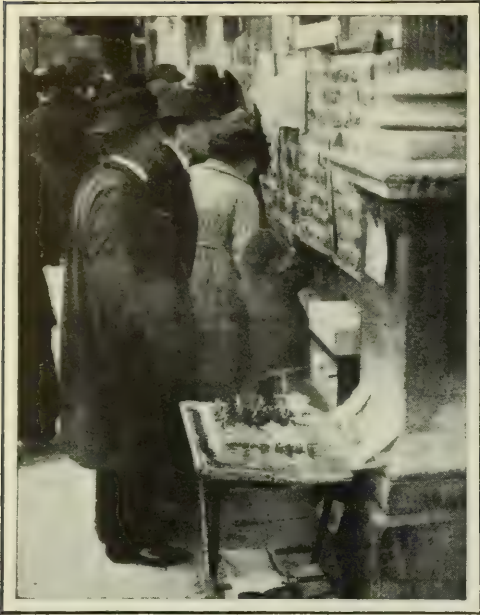
#### HER OFFERING TO THE WOUNDED

(Wounded men on the balconies of the Elysées Palace Hotel, Paris, often receive bouquets from the young ladies who constantly pass by in this fashionable quarter)

and the ungrudging applause of her enemy in arms. It is impossible to say too much of French fortitude and spirit. But the combination of Allies is, the French think, a massing of power against which Germany cannot possibly prevail and under the blows of which Germany will be crushed as certainly as a hollow globe of glass would be ground to powder under the impact of a monstrous trip-hammer.

Germany, they say, already has two frontiers to defend, and before long she may have three. Germany must keep half her army in the East to resist the Russians, half of it in the West to oppose the French and English, and at the same time Germany must make shift to send hundreds of thousands of soldiers to Austria. Worst of all, Germany must equip with seasoned officers the Turkish troops and fortifications, and sprinkle a goodly number of officers among the Austrians. Moreover, the British fleet is in absolute command of every water approach to Germany from the north, and the French fleet performs a like service upon the Mediterranean. In short, the French contend that not only is Germany surrounded, but by forces that are irresistible in numbers and in wealth.





Photograph by Paul Thompson

PEOPLE LOOKING AT PICTURE POSTCARDS ON A  
PARIS STREET

Here is a summary of this reasoning afforded by a careful French authority:

#### RESOURCES

<i>Germans and Austrians</i>	<i>Allies</i>
<i>Men:</i> 12 to 15 millions.	20 to 25 millions.
<i>Money:</i> German banknotes losing on exchange.	French banknotes gaining on exchange.
<i>War materials:</i> Blockaded.	Inexhaustible.
<i>Foodstuffs:</i> Blockaded.	Inexhaustible.

Undoubtedly France is counting heavily upon enormous reinforcements of men from England. And she has earned the right to expect this aid; for the French have been doing by far the greatest part of the fighting thus far in the western theater of the war,—how much one can grasp in an instant by examining the battle-line nearly four hundred miles long, every foot of which has been and is being held by the French except a comparatively small space of thirty or thirty-five miles.

#### SUPPOSED FRENCH LOSSES

Consider now the French strength, apart from that of the Allies. While no official or other dependable figures of French losses are to be had from any source, yet there is basis for an estimate which cannot be wide of the mark. Up to February 1, 1915, the French returned to the Germans 840 pris-

oners so badly wounded as to be incapacitated for any further service in the war; and in exchange for these, the Germans returned to France 1600 French prisoners in similar condition. From this data it is a fair inference that the French losses up to the end of January, 1915, were virtually twice as great as the German losses on the western front. And this, it is believed, is informed French opinion.

This estimate of French loss is too small in one particular however,—that of unwounded prisoners. Up to January 1, 1915, Germany had taken prisoner 220,000 unwounded French soldiers, who were then in numerous prison camps throughout Germany; whereas the number of unwounded German soldiers taken prisoner by the French must have been very small in comparison. For while no figures on this point were obtainable in France, the total number of soldiers, prisoners and missing from the German side, on January 1, 1915, amounted to only 153,000 men all told and on both fronts, according to German estimate.

The only other basis from which French losses may be surmised is the French estimate that France needs 100,000 new men every month. As is the case with the German wounded, 60 per cent. of the French wounded recover sufficiently to return to the front.

#### UNDOUBTED FRENCH RESOURCES

To supply the men needed France has an astonishing store of soldier material. At the date of this writing, March 15, 1915, France has 2,000,000 men on the battle-line. Behind these, she has in waiting about 1,800,000 more trained soldiers. These are gathered in military depots or camps, located conveniently near the front. There are 210 of these reservoirs of men for infantry alone.

In case of emergency there can be added to these 900,000 men between the ages of thirty-nine and forty-five; to these could be added 250,000 men of the class of 1916 and the same number of the class of 1917; these men would be youths of seventeen to eighteen years of age, respectively.

France's financial resources would seem to be very large. The Bank of France reports a gold reserve of 4,000,000,000 francs; and that institution estimates that the people have in their stockings the same amount of gold. It would appear that this estimate is generous in view of the extremely heavy investments which the French people have made in Russia. The inability of South American countries to pay their vast obliga-



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

#### SIGNIFICANT SIGN IN FRONT OF A PARIS CAFÉ

tions on account of extensive French investments in that quarter caused a temporary disturbance in certain banking circles; but it is not believed that it has produced serious embarrassment.

Like all other of the warring countries except Germany, France declared a moratorium at the outbreak of the war. From the very first, however, the banks paid \$250, plus 5 per cent. of the balance of the deposit. This proportion was gradually increased, and at the time of this writing, it is 50 per cent. of deposits; but from the beginning of the year the greater banks gave all deposits in full. Also, these larger financial institutions resumed the payment of dividends, which had been suspended from the outbreak of the war.

These larger and solidier banks at first paid to their employees who were called to the colors full salaries if married, and half salaries if unmarried; but beginning with 1915, the salaries of their fighting, married employees were reduced. The reason of this probably was that the government pays the wives of soldiers 1.25 francs per day (25 cents), and 50 centimes (10 cents) per day for each child.

#### EFFECT OF THE WAR ON BUSINESS

Business in France does not reflect the apparently excellent financial condition of the country. Conversations with thoroughly informed and careful business men indicated

that French business is for the time being paralyzed. "It is badly shattered," said a substantial French business man. "It is practically suspended," was the opinion of the expert of a great house whose duty it is to keep accurately posted on this vital subject.

"Would you say that business generally is 50 per cent. normal?" was one question asked of a thoroughly informed French business man.

"No; nor anywhere near it."

"Forty per cent.?"

"No."

"Twenty-five per cent.?"

"Hardly,—perhaps."

"You see," another informant explained, "most of our plants are practically idle because their forces are in the army, except of course those engaged in making war materials. Then, too, you must remember that the richest part of the country,—our principal textile district, our best mining district, and among our largest metal works,—is in the hands of the Germans."

It was the estimate of these gentlemen that it will take from three to five years after the war ends to make French industry normal again. The deterioration of unused machinery, the difficulty of reorganizing working staffs, the supposed destruction of plants and the other effects of war upon industry form the ground of this unhappy view of the future.



## THE INDOMITABLE FRENCH SPIRIT

All this does not in the least lessen the ardor of French spirit nor soften the hardness of French determination, so far as this could be judged by those personally consulted. The only doubt upon this point was that already referred to, of indications of weariness of the war on the part of the *bourgeoisie*, and their eagerness to get to making money again. While this was stated upon authority deemed sufficiently reliable to repeat, yet personal investigation did not disclose it. On the contrary, all French men and women displayed a determination quite equal to that found in Germany, and much fiercer and more vivid in expression; yet this talk is not strident and loud, or boastful, but rather tense, quiet, and desperate. It is deemed reasonably safe to say that at the very least the French are an absolute unit in their resolve to drive the Germans from French territory, and that to this end pauper and millionaire are as one man, ready to sacrifice fortune and life.

Also, it should be said that upon the issue of supporting the war, political parties have merged into one, although on other questions, even upon the manner of conducting the war, there still are strong party divisions. For example, in the second week of March,

1915, the government was viciously attacked in the Chamber of Deputies because Paris was kept under martial law. And such nagging as this promises to be not infrequent. While the form of parliamentary government is observed, yet at bottom France is under a military dictatorship. "What Joffre says goes," was the statement of one of the most competent and dependable men in France. It appears that the commander-in-chief indicates what is necessary; the government takes measures accordingly; and parliament sustains the government.

It is among the higher classes, however, that the French spirit burns brightest and with purest flame. Within the intellectual circles especially does this patriotic fire blaze in its noblest radiance. It is quite impossible to overstate the exalted ardor of these French men and women. If their heart and soul are those of the whole French people; if the *bon bourgeois* feels as deeply as the descendant of the old nobility; if in the peasant's mind there is the militant resolve which dwells in the mind of the French scholar; if the workingman and tradesman feel as deeply and simply as does the French philosopher and thinker, then indeed is France in battle for a war to the death.



Photograph by the American Press Association

FRENCH SOLDIERS AT MILITARY BASE SOISSONS, FRANCE, AT MESS



OFFICIALS COMING ABOARD THE "TENNESSEE" AT ALEXANDRIA, TO MEET THE REFUGEES FROM PALESTINE  
 (1. Arthur Darrels, American Consul at Alexandria; 2. Captain Benton C. Decker, of the *Tennessee*; 3. W. C. Hornblower, Egyptian government delegate to the two Alexandria refugee committees)

## THE JEWISH FLIGHT FROM PALESTINE TO EGYPT

THE RELIEF WORK AIDED BY THE BATTLESHIP "TENNESSEE" IN CONVOYING THOUSANDS OF REFUGEES FROM PALESTINE TO ALEXANDRIA

BY MARTHA L. ROOT

THE first day of my arrival in Alexandria, Egypt, March 13, 1915, I came at once into the midst of "expelled Palestine." Six thousand refugees from the towns of Palestine were in Alexandria. I inquired of Mr. Arthur Darrels, the American Consul, how to find out about these poor outcasts, and he courteously gave me a note to Mrs. H. M. Broadbent, an Englishwoman in Gabbari. He sent a tall Arab to put me on a tram, and our way led through poverty-stricken and filthy sections of "old Alexandria" to an enormously big, round stone structure overlooking the Mediterranean Sea, and bearing the name "Quarantine Lazaret, Gabbari."

Thronging the entrance were hundreds of Jewish people attired in all manner of ill-fitting clothing. Mrs. Broadbent, clad in

immaculate white linen, stood in the inner court smiling and speaking cheerfully to the refugees who were trying to tell her all their woes at once.

I discovered that Mrs. Broadbent was connected with the government quarantine department, and that the building, which might well have been a Khedive's residence, had been opened to the refugees, together with its pleasant gardens, lying close to the sea. The "Lazaret" had in fact once been the palace of Said Pasha. An immense bathtub cut from a piece of solid marble stood by the gardens and three little girls were dancing on a table where probably he used to dine al fresco. The gardens extended out in a perfect circle, and around the circle was a stone enclosure, where soldiers were housed, and a moat where horses





REFUGEES FROM PALESTINE DISEMBARKING AT ALEXANDRIA, EGYPT, FROM THE UNITED STATES WARSHIP "TENNESSEE."

had been kept. Every particle of space from moat to palace was utilized by the unfortunate Jewish refugees. Sometimes twenty-six families occupied one spacious room, or two families would share a horse stall. They had come to Alexandria from Jerusalem, Jaffa, Haifa, and the provinces of Palestine. All had been provided with clothing, beds, and cooking utensils. Cotton merchants had generously given the poorer quality of their staple and from this the refugees had fashioned mattresses. Bamboo had also been given them, and with it the men from Palestine had made low cots. Those who did not have the bamboo cots were furnished with straw matting.

"We give them tea and bread for breakfast," said Mrs. Broadbent. "At noon they have a thick, nourishing soup with bread, and at night bread and tea. Each individual receives a loaf of bread a day and four lumps of sugar." On Sundays they are given olives and jam instead of hot soup, and each Friday they are given a meat din-

ner. Large as this immense quarantine station was, its population constituted only a small proportion of the total number of Jews now living in improvised refugee towns in Alexandria. About 4500 of these Jewish refugees were brought over from Palestine by the American battleship *Tennessee*, which made five trips, arriving in Alexandria, December 28, January 15, January 19, January 30, and February 16.

Mrs. Broadbent sent for some of the bright refugee children to tell me about the *Tennessee*. "Captain Decker is a living angel," they began. "He carried the babies in his arms and the sailors did, too. He gave his room to mothers with young babies, and he turned his bathroom over to be used by mothers with young babies. He gave us soup, milk, and little cakes. We had a big entertainment, and there was a nice baby boy born on the *Tennessee*. The sailors of the *North*

*Carolina* warship from your country said they were jealous that they were not the ones to bring us over."

#### THE KEY TO THE SITUATION

A business man from Jaffa gave me the key to the whole Jewish situation. He said: "The Turks, who did not until recently hate the Jews, do so now because they fear



A TYPICAL REFUGEE SCENE IN MAFRUSA, ONE OF THE HEADQUARTERS IN ALEXANDRIA OF THE JEWS WHO HAVE BEEN EXPELLED FROM PALESTINE



ON BOARD THE "TENNESSEE"

their latent power as a nation. The Germans foresee the menace of the Jews in a commercial way. Many of these Jews are from France, Russia, and England, and they refuse to become Ottomans. They have migrated to Jerusalem for two main purposes,—to establish the center of Jewish life in Palestine and to assert Jewish national

individuality in the dispersed communities. They wish to bring the land without a people to the people without a land."

It is a national movement of an essentially spiritual kind. To become Ottomanized would kill these Jews nationally and spiritually. They aim to obtain the support of the European monarchs for Jewish colonization on an autonomous basis.

The Jewish population in Palestine is 120,000, among a total of 600,000. There is no desire among them to form a separate province of the Ottoman Empire.

#### STORIES OF THE REFUGEES

All of their stories were heartrending. Many of them had been shoved aboard ships having only the clothing they wore, and some had even been taken from their homes in their night clothes. Many were barefooted and without hats. Some of them did not have a moment to gather together any luggage or to even get their families together.



VACCINATING JEWISH REFUGEES FROM PALESTINE IN MAFRUSA QUARANTINE, ALEXANDRIA

(All were given a physical examination and vaccinated before being housed in Alexandria)



I asked one refugee how this happened. He replied: "Beha-El-Dine, secretary of the Generalissimo, announced at noon one day that all Jews who had not accepted Ottoman citizenship must quit the country on an Italian steamer leaving at four o'clock that afternoon. The police seized all of us Jews, who happened to be on the streets. Women were taken, too. They were not allowed to go home to get the barest necessities to protect them from the winter's cold. We were hurried to the port. The boatmen were there with poignards in their hands, and threatened to kill us if we did not hand over to them our money and our jewels. Women were disrobed and jewels torn from them. They were beaten so cruelly that their cries resounded on the shore.

Religious services are held in all the refugee quarters. There were old men with marvelously strong, spiritual faces and young men, students who were preparing to become rabbis. The "halos" of absolute faith even in this grim vicissitude were their "rich garments." Instinctively it came to me that this was not the first time they had been exiled. Many of the refugees were Russian and Galician Jews who were so persecuted that they had to leave their own country. Now, after they had built homes and become prosperous in an adopted land, this new calamity had overtaken them.

In the hospital fitted up in Gabbari, I saw thirty-five refugee mothers who had been cared for this week during childbirth by a distinguished refugee from Jerusalem, Dr. Abouchedid. He had been at the head of a hospital, and director of its ten dispensaries. He told me that he had been arrested as a spy and came near being shot. His wife, who is sharing his exile with him, invited me into their two small bare rooms in the quarantine.

#### THE SITUATION IN JERUSALEM

Dr. Abouchedid explained the critical situation in Jerusalem: "All business is dead. All shops of the Jews, both of Allied and of Ottoman descent, were robbed by the authorities. They even took the silk cloaks, women's gloves, and perfumes, saying that these were needed by the soldiers. Waterproof overcoats and leggings were taken off from Jews in the streets. The wealthiest persons in Palestine have been actually turned into beggars.

A Jewish writer, also a refugee, said: "The economic situation of Palestine is

terrible. The large orange crop of Jaffa is ruined because there is no petroleum to run the motive power for irrigation. Germans and Turks lay hands on everything. They seize such small plunder as a quarter of a pound of tea, and bakings of two loaves of bread. Candles or matches cannot be bought now at any price."

A tailor from Jaffa told me that all the tailors of his town who failed to produce a certain number of uniforms for the Turkish and German troops were savagely beaten on the soles of their feet.

Mention should be made of the noble work done by the Australian soldiers in caring for these enforced emigrants. They took their horses and wagons and brought over four thousand of these poor people to the places of inspection, and later helped them to the barracks where they were to be housed. All the Palestinians were given a physical examination and vaccinated before they were assigned to quarters. Mr. W. C. Hornblower, an athletic Englishman, is the Egyptian Government delegate to the two Alexandria Refugee committees. The influx is so great that the government is directing the relief.

At present besides Gabbari, the telegraph building, a baggage house, and a station for soldiers for His Highness, the deposed Khedive, and "Wardian," a beautiful building which was recently erected as a private railway station for the Khedive, are overflowing with the Jewish influx. Mafrusa, a cattle quarantine, is the home of hundreds of others. In the yards at Mafrusa, I saw 600 young Jews drilling. Each day they ask to join the British troops to go out and fight for Palestine. Three hundred young men are housed in a moving-picture theater. The benches had been converted into beds. A bakery has been fitted up where the refugees make their bread in several instances. Laundries are improvised; hundreds of women do washing; some of the men work in factories which have been fitted up for them. Sewing is provided and many refugees make a few pennies each day. The Jews are not encouraged to go to Alexandria to find employment, as Alexandria has a big problem in providing for its own poor.

The consuls of various countries have assumed responsibility for their nationals and the Egyptian Government will probably be reimbursed for the present expense. The Jews wish to return to Palestine as soon as the fate of war permits.



ONE OF THE GROUPS OF KRUPPS' MODEL HOUSES FOR WORKINGMEN AT ESSEN

# THE KRUPPS' MODEL TOWN

A TYPE OF GERMAN FEUDALISM

BY ROBERT HUNTER

TO hear the name of Krupp is instantly to think of guns and cannon and terrible engines of war now devastating all Europe. That Krupps are the makers of military machinery, and that Frau Bertha Krupp von Bohlen is one of the richest women in the world, are about the only facts known to the average American concerning the great industrial center of Essen in Germany.

But there are other facts of more than ordinary interest. The patriotic Germans point with pride to Essen as a model industrial town, where its hosts of employees are well housed and circumstanced, and in addition enjoy many social privileges not enjoyed by the workers in the ordinary industrial community. And all through the benevolence and kindly foresight of the Krupp family.

Another of the aspects of Essen is that the Krupps are said to have established a perfect system of industrial feudalism: that for all practical purposes the people of Essen are body and soul the property of the Krupps,

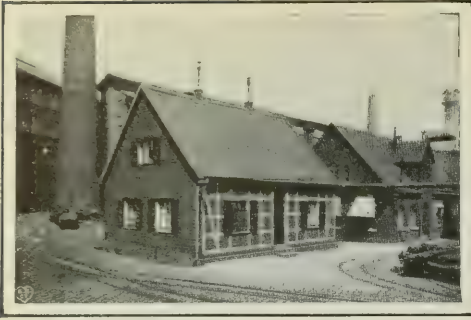
just as if they were serfs back in the Middle Ages on the domain of some feudal baron.

True, their masters feed them well and house them well, but that, it is said by those who take this view, is no more than was done by the barons. Indeed, if the barons were to have efficient military service they had to recognize their responsibilities to their serfs.

On the other hand, it is said that in these days when the industrial barons take all they can get by way of service and repudiate their responsibilities, it is much to the credit of the Krupps that they keep their workpeople in a comfortable condition.

It is not my concern to decide whether the Krupps were animated only by philanthropic motives in establishing their model community, with its sanitary houses, wholesome surroundings, care for the sick and injured, pensions and asylum for the aged; or whether it was simply with shrewd business acumen, or with deliberate malprepense, they evolved this system of "benevolent feudalism."





MODEST BEGINNINGS OF THE KRUPP WORKS, ESSEN

Here is practically a national concern in private hands. It might almost be called the German Arsenal. To have the regular working of this great place subject to the disputes, strikes, and stoppages incidental to industry would be to jeopardize the interests of the Fatherland in case of war. This was all the more necessary because of the extensive growth of the anti-militarist sentiment among the working-class of Germany. It was, therefore, essential that as many of these drawbacks, or the reasons for them, should be eliminated.

The wife who is anxious to keep her husband in good humor is advised to "feed the brute," and the Krupps undoubtedly went to work on the same principle in regard to their employees. The work they had for them to do was highly skilled, highly dangerous, and often very dangerous. They wanted an army of the most sturdy and efficient men,—stalwart sons of Vulcan,—men who could always be relied upon for service, and who would not be susceptible to the influences and disturbances of industrial or political life.

And so the conditions of employment must be better than anywhere else, the wages must permit of a higher standard of living, there should be security for life,—in short, the conditions should be such that it paid any disgruntled man better to stay right on.

My visit to Essen was for the purpose of ascertaining how far the claim to be a model industrial town was justified, to see in what manner this was brought about, and to note the general effect upon the lives and happiness of the inhabitants.

Approaching Essen, where the gigantic steel mills are erected, I looked out of the car window, expecting to find myself in one of those cloudy, overcast, smoky atmospheres which I had sampled at Pittsburgh and Sheffield, and which are so common in great industrial districts. I was coming direct from the Rhine, where the skies were blue and the day full of warmth and sunshine. There was little difference in Essen. The sky was perhaps a bit gray, but the town was clean and lovely, the houses bright and cheerful. From the size of the houses it was apparent that "well-to-do" people had not forsaken the town as being unhealthy and undesirable. There were no hovels, no wretched alleys, no vile tenements, and no hideous courts.

I went to the offices of the factory, explained my object, and asked to be shown about. Even compared with American standards, Krupps' Works are a big concern. It would be impossible for me to give any adequate description of the various departments. Altogether the firm own, in addition to the vast steel works here, proving grounds at Meppen and Tanger-Hütte, three great coal mines, and ironworks at four different places. In their various undertakings they employ more than 70,000 people, no less than 200,000 persons being dependent upon the industry for their livelihood. The total salaries are something over fifty million dollars a year. The valuation of the stock is sixty millions, and the entire industry, with all its branches, belongs now to Frau Bertha Krupp von Bohlen, the older daughter of the late Friedrich Krupp.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

SOME OF THE MODERN WORKINGMEN'S HOUSES AT ESSEN

The works at Essen, and most of the town itself, are built directly over coal mines. Passing from one shop to another one sees in process of manufacture giant guns, enormous warships, and quantities of all possible steel products. Indeed the feeling in some of the huge buildings is that one is facing a great fleet of battleships. There is an alarming display of naval and coast guns, actual fortresses, armored turrets, shields, disappearing carriages, hoisting and transporting machinery, steel shells, torpedoes, shrapnel, and case shot,—all of which tend to make one feel timidly small.

In one department are all the materials for the combination of great railway cars, locomotives, rails, and switches. Still another series of shops are given over to the making of motor cars, and everywhere is the sound of enormous presses, the roar of steam hammers, the rattle of overhead cranes, while in and about the great machinery run and climb men who seem in comparison mere pigmies.

#### THE CASTING OF A BIG GUN

The most interesting building I entered was the immense crucible steel foundry. It is an enormous building, flanked on either side by great furnaces in which the molten steel is kept at an intense heat. Sunk in the center of the floor is the mold for a casting of fifty tons. When I entered all was quiet. Standing about were hundreds of men, all heavily muffled as a protection against the heat and the possible splashings of metal.

The director gave a sign that the molten steel was ready to be removed from the



FRAU BERTHA KRUPP.  
VON BOHLEN

DR. GUSTAV KRUPP  
VON BOHLEN

furnaces and poured into the mold; and in an instant the scorching heat of white flames struck my face from both sides, although I was standing perhaps fifty yards from the furnaces. Swarms of men rushed as it seemed right into the mouths of these fires, and snatched from them blazing cauldrons of metal. Gripping tongs, they dashed two by two toward the mouth of the mold, and by a dextrous twist of the hand the glaring white steel was poured into the cavity. Another twist of the hand, and the crucible was thrown on one side. These groups of men had hardly time to get clear before other groups were upon their heels with another lot of shining metal.

The order was doubtless marvelous, but to me it seemed all confusion and pandemonium; the curiously muffled workmen seemed to be hopping frantically about amidst a thousand blazing fires. It was the most dramatic and terrifying sight I have ever witnessed. The slightest slip, the loosening of a grip, the misplacing of a foot, might cause a score of men to be wiped out.

This short description will convey some idea of the nature of the work and the character of the workmen in Krupps' concerns. The sixty thousand employees are nearly all men. The work is not only dangerous, it demands the highest skill, as the materials used are of great commercial value. For instance, the gun which I have just described being cast in its first form, would when it was finished cost one of the great powers not less than half a million dollars.

A most impressive sight is to be seen at



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE HOME OF THE KRUPP FAMILY AT ESSEN



5:30 in the morning, when thirty thousand men enter the gates of the works. Most of the men look strong and well, and they are undoubtedly a finer set of workmen than could be seen at any American factory. Only occasionally could one catch sight of a man ill-clad, or the pale face of a youngster just beginning his life of toil. As the whistle sounds for the closing of the gates there is a great rush, and the enormous crowd disappears with astonishing quickness inside the huge gates. It is a great sight, and one not to be missed by those who desire to know how the work of the world is carried on.

Of a certainty some of these men, erect and alert, who had passed laughing and chatting into their work, would be brought forth dead or suffering most terrible injuries. Thousands of them face every day dangers that an army is rarely called upon to face. Their courage deserves the highest commendation and recognition by all society. Yet to the men it is simply a matter of bread and butter for themselves and for their children; and they face their daily toil and danger with a stoicism rarely attained by the book philosopher.

But I did not come especially to see the factory, although it was fascinatingly interesting. I wanted to know about the work done to improve the living conditions of these brave and capable workmen. I learned that in 1848, when Alfred Krupp became sole proprietor of the works in Essen, it was a small steel factory, which, although it had been established thirty-eight years, was employing only seventy men. Under the guidance of its new administrator, however, the factory soon increased in size, giving employment to an increasing number of workmen.

#### A GREAT HOUSING SCHEME

Essen being but a small country town the available houseroom was necessarily limited, and with the advent of numerous workmen and their families, there was soon a house-famine. Men and their wives and children were housed in one or two rooms, and often they accommodated a lodger. It was inevitable that this overcrowding should result in conditions of disease and vice. Various attempts were made to deal with the problem, but it was not until a dreadful epidemic of cholera, which carried off hundreds of workmen and their families, that a serious movement for reforming the housing conditions was undertaken.

In 1861 Alfred Krupp built homes for some of his workmen. These were known

as the "Foremen's Lodgings," but soon they had to be removed in order to give ground space for the rapidly growing factory. New housing attempts were then projected. In 1863 the first "Labor Colony" was erected. It still exists, and is known as the Old West End Colony. There are eight rows of two-storied houses, containing altogether a hundred and thirty-six tenements. There are about sixteen tenements in a block, and each tenement consists of two or three rooms.

In putting up these houses Krupp's aim was to furnish for the poorest of his workmen and their families decent homes at the same rents as they had been paying for their former small, dark, and ill-ventilated lodgings. Of necessity they had to be built rather compactly, and near enough to the factory to enable the workmen to go home for the mid-day meal.

The new houses were immediately occupied, and the death rate and general health of the workmen showed considerable improvement. The old tenements and crowded quarters had naturally encouraged drunkenness and vice, and Alfred Krupp was wise enough to see that the consequent loss of strength and vitality among the workmen meant a considerable financial loss to his firm.

The first colony fulfilled the temporary need, and no other building was done until 1871, when several new branches of the factory were opened. By this time there was an enormous demand for lodgings. With characteristic energy Alfred Krupp again devoted himself to the problem, and in quick succession arose four colonies. One, known as the Barracks, was constructed in double-quick time in order to shelter the new workmen arriving daily. The Barracks still exist, and although they are of light and airy construction they are in comparison with the other colonies almost a slum. The poorest workmen live there, and the dilapidation of the houses presents a very disagreeable impression.

The West End Colony immediately adjoins the factory, and consists of large tenements. They are extremely simple, and according to our modern standard exceptionally ugly, but they were in their day a great sanitary improvement on the ordinary dwelling houses in Essen. Kronenburg, another large colony built in the seventies, covers over fifty acres of land, and consists of 226 large four-storied brick tenements. Each house has ample space and a garden plot surrounding it. The streets are lined with fine lin-

dens, and there is a beautiful park with a large open space adjoining for games and sports. As I was passing, some of the boys, having finished work at the factory, were in the midst of an exciting game of football.

At one side of the busy market-place stands a large building containing a restaurant, library, and reading-room. There are two halls, one for the reunions of various societies, and a larger one, seating about 1500 persons, surrounded by galleries, utilized for gymnastics and theatrical performances.

#### CHARMINGLY DESIGNED COLONIES

But the most attractive colonies are situated further from the works. Baumhof is quite charming, with its small houses, each with its own ground, and each with its space for pigs and poultry. Friedrichshof is another well-laid-out colony, with plenty of playgrounds and gardens and breathing spaces. The apartments are admirably appointed; every tenement has its balcony, has its vines and potted plants; and the altogether appearance is very pleasing. Near the center is a large and well-equipped library, and a bathing establishment with tubs and shower baths.

Alfredshof is perhaps the most picturesque colony. Its streets, squares, and gardens are charmingly planned, and the houses are very attractive indeed. Fine gables and pretty windows adorn even the smallest cottages, which are all constructed of ornamental brick, with woodwork of a dark character. Each house has a veranda, and no two seem to be alike. These latter colonies are certainly an improvement upon the older ones, and are a credit to the firm.

For the poorest class of single men there are lodging houses of a cheap character, known as "The Ménage." They have accommodation for eight hundred men. Some of the better-paid men are housed in what is called the Bachelors' Quarter, where they are provided with an extremely comfortable club life.

But it is in their provision for the disabled and aged workmen that Krupps have excelled themselves. Altenhof is an exquisitely designed little community of detached cottages on a particularly attractive site. It overlooks the sylvan valley of the Ruhr, and nestles up to a little wood of beech trees



SUPERANNUATED EMPLOYEES AT "ALTENHOF"

quite at the edge of the town. It is intended that all the workmen who have grown old in the service of the firm shall be cared for in this colony. The old couples live together, but there are special homes for the widows and widowers, both of which are comfortable buildings. At present this colony contains a hundred and twenty-five houses.

A rough idea of this great housing scheme will be gained when I say that over 30,000 persons are now housed in the various Krupp colonies.

#### FEEDING OF THE MULTITUDE

Having housed their people comfortably the Krupps next turned their attention to feeding and clothing them, and supplying them with furniture and household requisites. Thus enormous supply stores have been developed. At first the supplies were sold at cost price, and naturally difficulties soon arose with the local shopkeepers. Now goods are sold at current prices to every one, whether employed by the firm or not. But, in order that the employees should not be robbed of their benefits a system of rebate was devised, and now every year in December the bonuses are returned to the workpeople in cash.

In connection with these great stores slaughter houses and a large bakery have been established, and these establishments are



models of their kind. The baking, for instance, is almost entirely done by machinery. Indeed only once during the process does anyone touch the material.

By way of amusement and recreation for its employees the firm has established two casinos, with dining-rooms, billiard-rooms, tennis courts and cafés. There is a large concert hall, an excellent library, a well-equipped gymnasium, as well as several bathing establishments. In addition to the ordinary schools there is an industrial and household school where more than 2000 girls, all daughters of the workmen, are taught household duties, plain and fancy sewing, dressmaking, embroidery, etc. In the workshops of the evening schools a great number of the boys practically serve their apprenticeship. A special committee is attached to the educational department, which supervises the recreation, the sporting, and the holiday arrangements.

#### HOSPITALS AND PENSIONS

In such a dangerous business as that of Krupps' there has to be provision for quick and adequate care of the injured and disabled, and this department is very efficient. The Convalescent Home, which adjoins the Old People's Colony, is one of the most charming places of the kind I have anywhere seen. The gardens stretch down to the Ruhr terrace overlooking the valley. All around are places for games and exercises, and the injured workmen sit about playing games or reading their newspapers. The food and medical attention is of the very best, which is only just, as nearly all the men have suffered terrible injuries in the works. One poor lad with whom I spoke had had both legs broken. Another had suffered terribly while working with a powerful explosive.

Fortunately for the workmen, and perhaps for the employers, there is in Germany compulsory insurance of all working people. The scheme provides that in any case the employee who is ill or injured must be cared for out of the insurance funds. The Krupp firm, however, has improved upon the national system, and has provided a system of its own which enables it to give considerable further assistance to its employees. They pay a workman whose annual wages are 1200 marks, and who has served thirty years, 660 marks per year as an old-age pension. The government pension is at present not more than 150 marks,—this the workman gets in addition to his Krupp pension.

Krupps are obliged to pay into the gov-

ernment pension fund about \$46,000 a year. In order to increase the benefits of their own funds they have at various times contributed large sums of money. There are other funds established among the workmen, and the workmen's aid fund, established a few years ago, was endowed with one million marks. This is a supplementary fund for those disabled before being entitled to an old-age pension, or in case of death to assist the widows and orphans.

At the time of my visit to Essen the German newspapers were full of descriptions of the conditions of the Chicago Stock Yards. However incredible these descriptions seemed to those who had never been in that abyss of poverty, I knew them to be true, for I had worked for several years among the poorest of Packingtown. And I could not help contrasting what I knew to exist in Chicago with what I now saw around me in Essen.

Here was a great industry engaged in supplying the world with gigantic warships and terribly accurate guns that would plow furrows through living cities and destroy men by the million. On the other hand the American industry was engaged in what should be one of the most benevolent works of men, that of feeding the nations of the world economically. And yet the people engaged in the latter had to work in filthy workshops, and live in an abominably wretched condition, while the makers of man-killing weapons lived in conditions which by comparison were the height of luxury.

#### SECURITY AGAINST WANT, BUT NO POLITICAL LIBERTY

The laborer's most substantial complaint against the present industrial system is that it gives him not the least security. It takes his labor when it wants it, and refuses it when it does not want it. For the rest he can go hang. His existence is in very deed from hand to mouth, and he is never more than a month or so from starvation.

The workmen at Krupps' are fully provided for from birth to old age. They are freed from the harassing anxieties of the ordinary laborer, so long as they are faithful servants of the Krupps. What more could they desire?

Yet there is one big fly in the amber. And here it is that some people think they can detect the cloven foot of feudalism. The men who are employed by Krupps have to sacrifice their political liberty, and this is undoubtedly a source of great irritation.

The men are not allowed to join a trade union. Instant dismissal is the lot of anyone found doing so. No one connected with the firm can openly belong to the Social Democratic Party, which despite of, and perhaps because of, the bitter hostility of this powerful firm has made astonishing progress in Essen. Anyone found agitating for the Socialists is immediately forced to quit. The firm simply will not have anything or anybody about the place savoring of labor organization or socialism.

Notwithstanding the philanthropy of the Krupps, and the comparative comfort of their existence, the workmen do consider themselves in helpless bondage to their employers. And unquestionably Krupps have an extraordinary power over their vast army of employees because of their welfare institutions. Strikes are rendered hopeless by the men's fear of losing the benefits they have, in good houses, cheap food, and old-age pensions.

I know that the average American workman, who certainly does not seem to set great store by his own political liberty, would be inclined to be cynical about this, and it is pretty certain that they would ridicule Lamennais were he to come now and say, "Think you that he who sleeps, the rope about his neck, on the litter which his master has thrown him, has sweeter slumber than he who, having fought all day that he may be subject to no master, rests for a few hours of the night, on the earth in the corner of some field?"

The German workman has a rope about his neck and is to-day being driven to battle. The German military machine is the Krupp feudalism on a gigantic scale. It is yet to be seen whether the feudalism of modern Germany is a system perfect enough to overpower the inchoate democracies of Western Europe and stop the avalanche of the barbarous Czars.

## THE KRUPP STEEL WORKS

**P**POINTING to the statue of William I in the Palace Square, the present Kaiser is supposed to have said on one occasion:

"The great Emperor whose place I fill to-day had his army. I have got my cannon." True; the Kaiser has his guns,—great guns and small guns, weapons of all kinds and calibers, of the latest design and pattern, together with all their appointments and ammunition. In every part of the war zone the German forces are well supplied with them. Some have also gone to Austria, and some to help out the Turk. But the Kaiser doubtless had in mind not only the weapons themselves, but the great shop from which they issue.

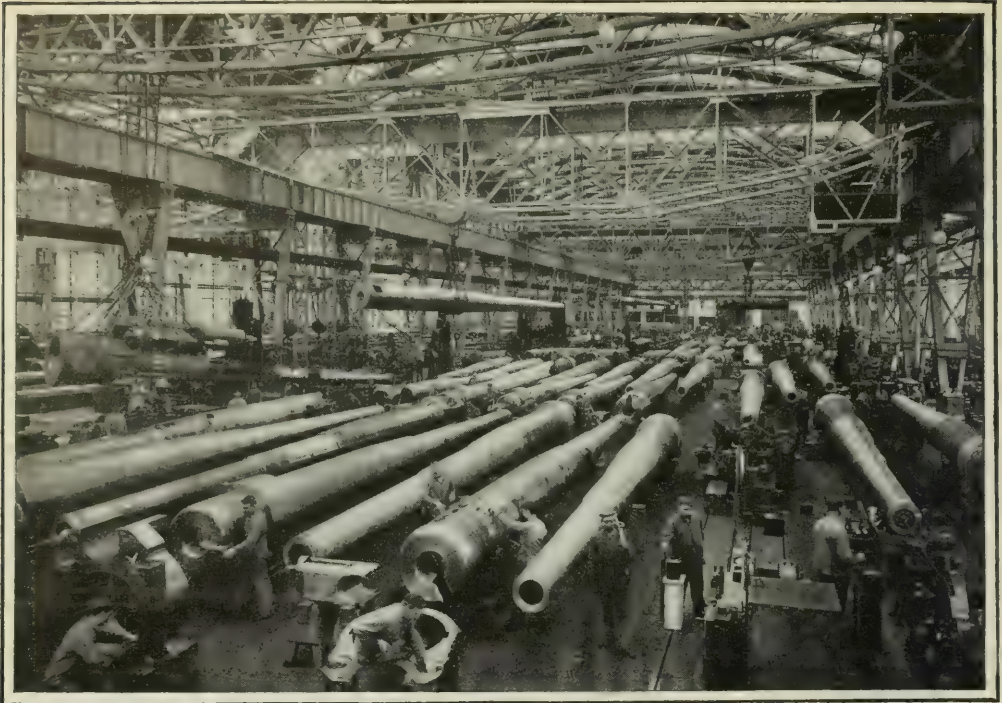
For, back of the gray German lines in Belgium and France, in East Prussia, Poland, and the Carpathians, and back of the whole German army and navy, and of Emperor and Empire, stand the colossal Krupp steel works, the greatest gun factory in the world. These great gun works are the very cornerstone and bulwark of German militarism, the core, kernel, and center of that Kaiserliche "Kultur" which relies for its development on the physical power to enforce its decrees.

This giant smithy at Essen-on-the-Ruhr is the veritable headquarters of Vulcan for

forging the thunderbolts of Mars. Situated in the northwestern corner of Germany, in one of the richest coal and iron districts of the country, it is conveniently served by a network of railways. Sixty miles to the southwest lies the Belgian border,—a short enough flight for hostile, bomb-throwing aviators. Were Belgium in the hands of the Allies, a large flock of these winged gentry might indeed play havoc with the great gun works. But, of course, measures have been duly taken for protection against such attacks from the air. Intruders on foot are also guarded against, for watchers, in uniform and without, carefully bar all the approaches to the works.

Strangely enough, Essen, the greatest headquarters for war munitions in the world, was originally noted as the seat of a Benedictine nunnery, where gentle souls taught the mild precepts of forgiveness and peace. That was hundreds of years ago. The founder of the great steel industry, Friedrich Krupp, a blacksmith, began the business in 1811 in a little stone building which he purchased for a few thousand dollars. Now, after more than a century of flourishing prosperity, the Krupp steel industry is a stock company capitalized at \$62,500,000, with fifteen subsidiary compa-





Photograph by Brown Brothers

A GREAT GUN SHOP AT THE KRUPP WORKS AT ESSEN

nies and over 500 branches in Germany and other parts of Europe. The principal ownership is in the hands of Frau Bertha Krupp von Bohlen (married a few years ago to Dr. Gustav von Bohlen und Halbach), and the concern is governed by a board of ten directors. There are some 70,000 employees altogether. At the principal plant at Essen, according to a recent report, 46,000 employees are now at work, many of the expert gun-makers who had joined the colors having been recalled to the factory at Krupps'.

The little dwelling of the original Krupp has become a fine mansion, and the town itself, in the hundred-odd years of the life of the Krupp concern, has grown from a village of 8813 in 1849 to over 450,000 souls. The bulk of this growth is the direct result of the prosperous development of the Krupp works. Over 150,000 of the people of the community are dependent for a livelihood on the big steel industry that has become synonymous with the name of Essen.

Five separate groups of works are comprised in the Krupp organization. The first of these is the Essen steel works,—with proving grounds at Meppen, Tanger-Hütte and Essen,—consisting of some sixty departments and covering an area of about 500 acres. Here are housed 7200 machine tools,

17 roll trains, 187 hammers, 81 hydraulic presses, 397 steam boilers, 569 steam engines, over 2200 electric motors, and 900 cranes. The total coal consumed in this entire establishment last year alone was 3,000,000 tons. In this group is included also the Milhofener-Hütte, with its four blast furnaces; the Hermann-Hütte, with three blast furnaces, and the Sayner-Hütte, with coal and iron mines.

The second group consists of the Friedrich-Alfred Iron Works at Rheinhausen, with 6 blast furnaces, 15 blowing engines, and Siemens-Martin steel works.

The third group is the Annen steel works, producing principally steel castings up to twenty-five tons.

The fourth group is the Gruson Machine Works at Magdenburg-Buckau, made up of more than fifty different shops. These cover an area of 75 acres, and house 1850 machine tools and nearly 500 cranes.

The fifth group is the naval section of the Krupp works, the Germania shipyards at Kiel. These works cover 60 acres, containing 8 building slips (four of them roofed), the two largest of which can accommodate vessels up to 725 feet long and 130 feet wide. Two acres are devoted to forge shops. The main bay of the fitting

shop is 475x78 feet and the boiler shop is 400x212 feet.

Ordinarily the Krupps manufacture railway equipment, motor-cars, and other steel products for purposes of peace, as well as guns. Now, however, the entire establishment is being devoted exclusively to the making of guns and war munitions. The immense furnaces are boiling tons of white hot metal, and the stacks belching forth volumes of black smoke, as the great army of gun makers work in day and night shifts under tremendous war pressure. "Busy Berthas" are being prolifically produced. Guns for naval and coast defense, for siege and fortress purposes, field and mountain guns, anti-aircraft guns, guns of all kinds and calibers, with accessories and appointments, such as armored turrets, shields, observation stations, conning towers, armored casements, disappearing carriages, hoisting and lifting apparatus for ammunition; great shells, torpedoes, shrapnel, case shot, all kinds of ammunition, armor plate, and ordnance wagons,—in fact, all the dread implements in the arsenal of war stream forth in steady shipments.

But the great masterpiece of the Krupp establishment, the "surprise" of the war, is the gigantic 42-centimeter siege gun,—the 40-ton, sixteen-inch monster which battered down the strong fortresses at Liège, Namur, Antwerp, and Maubeuge. The appearance of this gun, with its huge barrel, recoil

tubes, immense carriage, and "caterpillar feet," has since become more or less familiar through published pictures. Its projectile, which can be hurled a distance of twelve miles, comes in two varieties, one weighing 2000 pounds, and the other, with more steel and less explosive, weighing 2600 pounds. They are said to cost the German Government \$970 each.

The experiments attending the manufacture of these enormous weapons were conducted with the greatest secrecy and their existence was unknown before the war even to many officers in the German army. But even this enormous weapon may not be the limit of Krupp achievement. For the geniuses of the Krupp establishment are supposed to be constantly racking their brains to create new and more powerful engines of destruction. These will doubtless, in due time, be sprung upon a startled world. Until then, the plans and processes are carefully guarded.

A business requiring so much secrecy in order to prevent knowledge of each new achievement leaking out demands the utmost loyalty on the part of its employees. How this loyalty is secured and the Krupp workmen kept in a state of contentment by good wages, pension systems, attractive dwelling houses, and various other measures for the improvement of living conditions, is told by Mr. Hunter in the preceding article.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

A GENERAL VIEW OF THE KRUPP WORKS AT ESSEN



# GERMANY'S SUBMARINES

BY  
H.T. WADE



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ONE OF THE LATEST OF THE GERMAN UNDERSEA BOATS, THE "U 36,"—A RARE

THE sinking of the *Lusitania*, one of the largest and fastest of the transatlantic liners, by a German submarine, must be considered not only as a great marine disaster, but as marking an epoch in the military use of underwater craft. Whatever opinion may be held as to the ethics of the use of the submarine, or as to the questions of international law, morals, or humanity involved in sinking without a direct warning a passenger steamer carrying non-combatants, women and children, the fact still remains that the aspect of war at sea and the activity of the merchant marine of both combatant and neutral nations have been materially changed by the advent of the submarine. In this Germany has stood preëminent, and when it is recalled that in the adoption of submarines she followed rather than led other European powers, it is worth considering how this arm has been developed and used with such striking efficiency and grim success.

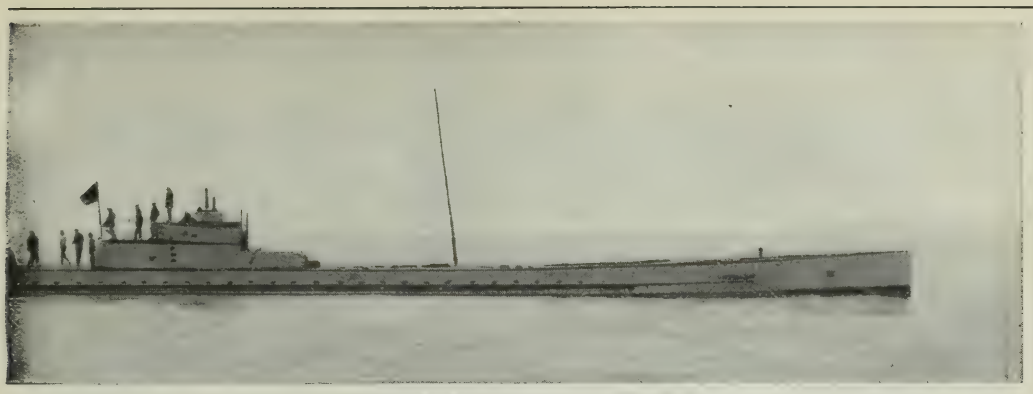
Not only have submarine torpedoes carrying up to 420 pounds of the most powerful explosives been used, but German submarines, armed with special guns brought out by the Krupps, rising suddenly to the surface, have halted merchant ships with one or more shots and have destroyed them either by gun-fire or by charges of high explosives placed aboard rather than by torpedoing.

When one considers that this present war on its naval side so far has not been characterized by tactical evolutions as much as by naval raids, then it can be appreciated how much the submarine has accomplished. Even the smaller and older craft have shown a surface radius of action of some 1200 miles at 9 knots, that has been found more than adequate to enable them to harry British commerce, while there is every indication that the Germans have made tactical use of

the submarine in groups according to previously arranged plans. Thus naval professional opinion has been expressed that the sinking of the *Lusitania* was not the result of a chance meeting along the liner's route, but rather the outcome of a tactical plan whereby a group of submarines, a dozen or less, were strung across the probable path of the steamship so that at least one would be within sinking distance, just as in the North Sea the Germans are reported to have used a fishing boat or other surface craft as a decoy, pretending that it was a mine-layer.

As regards actual operation as well as design and construction, the whole submarine situation is shrouded in the deepest secrecy. Not only details but even the number of craft in service and under construction are known to few. While the British blockade has bottled up German battleships and cruisers, yet the submarines have been almost free to pass out into the open sea and wreak destruction on warship and merchantman alike. But the Germans have not operated with impunity. Sinking or capture has been the fate of more than one submarine, but in the main manifest injury has been inflicted on the foe. It has been the submarine that has enforced the German decree of blockade which became effective on February 18, under the terms of which belligerent ships, or those of neutrals carrying contraband, might be sunk on sight. How effective this has been may be recalled by the fact that in the interval from February 18 to May 7, when the *Lusitania* was struck, 91 merchant vessels were sunk by German submarines or mines, with a loss of some 1450 lives.

Germany's first submarine *U 1*—all German submarines being known by the letter "U" for *Unterseeboote* and a number—commenced in 1903, was launched at the



PICTURE, OWING TO THE SECRECY SURROUNDING THE NEW GERMAN SUBMARINES

Krupp Germania Works, adjacent to the great naval dockyard at Kiel, on August 30, 1905, not entering service, however, until February, 1907. The *U 1* was an imitation of the French submarines of the *Aigrette* type of 1902, and had a surface displacement of 185 tons, which was increased to 240 tons when running submerged. The *U 1* had a length of 128 feet 3 inches. Its internal combustion engines for surface operation were of 400 B.H.P., affording a speed of 11 knots, while the electric motors were of 240 B.H.P., and could drive the vessel submerged at a speed of 8 knots. For armament there was one torpedo-tube and three 17.7-inch torpedoes.

In 1906-7 seven more submarines were commenced, and in the 1907 budget, the sum of \$1,250,000 figured for submarine construction, and this really opened the era of such craft in Germany. The *U 2* to *U 8* vessels were larger, with a displacement of 237 tons at surface and 300 tons submerged, 141 feet 8 inches in length, and had more powerful motors, so that they were capable of greater speed, while their surface radius of action was stated at 1200 miles at 9 knots, and submerged 50 miles at the same speed. The single torpedo-tube was replaced by two, and four torpedoes were carried.

In 1908, *U 9*, *U 10*, *U 11*, and *U 12* were commenced, all slightly larger than the *U 2* class, but of the same general type. Of these the *U 9* was responsible for the destruction of three British cruisers early in the war. This group was succeeded by eight still larger submarines resembling the *Pluviose* class in the French Navy, and begun in 1909 and 1910. The displacement was 450 tons on the surface and 550 tons submerged, with correspondingly increased speed, and armament, a third torpedo-tube, two extra tor-

pedoes and a 1.456-inch gun being added.

By this time the item for submarines in the annual naval budget had reached \$3,750,000, and in 1913 it rose to \$5,000,000, and was fixed at \$4,500,000 in 1914, the German naval program calling for 72 boats by 1917. In 1911 and 1912 a new group, *U 21* to *U 32*, was put under construction, with a surface displacement of 650 tons, submerged displacement of 800 tons, 213 feet 3 inches length. Their engines were of 1800 brake-horsepower, giving 16 knots on the surface, while the motors were of 800 B.H.P., affording a speed submerged of 10 knots. These submarines had a radius of 1500 miles at 12 knots, and 70 miles at 6 knots submerged. By this time four torpedo-tubes, and eight torpedoes 19.6 inches in diameter were carried, as well as two 3.464-inch guns.

In January, 1914, Germany's submarine strength consisted of twenty-four submarines ready and fourteen in construction, eight completed and available at the outbreak of the war, while the remainder, which represented the class begun in 1913, *U 33* to *U 38*, were of 675 tons displacement on the surface and 835 tons displacement submerged, and engines of 2500 B.H.P., giving a speed on the top of the water of 17 knots.

Germany, at the end of 1914, was reported to have under construction twenty new submarines, each with a length of 214 feet 134 inches, beam 20 feet, surface displacement 750 tons, submerged 900 tons, surface speed 20 knots, submerged speed 10 knots, 4000 brake-horsepower and twin screws. Rumors received in this country indicate that the German boats are being rushed and new craft constantly being launched. The *Lusitania*, if newspaper reports are to be accepted, was destroyed by the *U 39*.



# WAR CONTRACTS IN THE UNITED STATES

By CHARLES F. SPEARE

IF leave were given to examine in detail the daily bill of costs of conducting the war it would be found that the items of arms and ammunition stood high up on the list of expenditures. During the British attack on Neuve Chapelle from 35,000 to 40,000 shrapnel shells were exploded inside of eighteen hours, and this was only one of many engagements then taking place along the hundreds of miles of firing line in the western and eastern war zones. From Saturday, May 8, to the following Tuesday night the British fired a million and a half rounds of shells around Ypres, and Thursday, May 13, the British fleet in the Dardanelles fired 3000 shells.

Gun power, backed by inexhaustible supplies of ammunition, will win the war over superior military strategy and a preponderance of men. This is why the Allies are confident of success, for they have not only their own undisturbed resources to draw from, but are able to place contracts in the United States for shot, shell, and powder on such a scale that, whatever the prodigality of its use, no tactical advantage in the field need be neglected or postponed because the supplies of ammunition are running low.

It is not the purpose of this article to treat of the ethical or political aspects of the present trade between the United States and Europe in munitions of war. The attempt is simply to indicate something of the scale on which this business is being developed and the manner of its handling, and what it means as an economic factor of the day.

## THE FIRST STAGE,—CLOTHING, HORSES, AUTOMOBILES

The early battles of the war, involving the march on Paris, the taking of Antwerp, and the German retreat into northern France, gave the first reckoning on the inadequate supplies in the hands of the Allies with which to carry on a protracted campaign. The impoverished condition of the French army at that time is now well known; also the insufficient supplies available for the

troops under the Russian Grand Duke. By October, agents for the governments of Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy were beginning to arrive in the United States in large numbers and were collecting bids on everything, from sweet chocolate to submarines, that enters into the conduct of modern warfare. It had then been recognized that the war was to be no five or six months' affair; Kitchener had given England notice that she must prepare for a three-year struggle.

The first matter at hand was to outfit the armies very much as an individual would equip himself for a month of hunting or fishing in a rough country. So it was that the first rumors of what have come to be known as "war contracts" had to do with such elementary items as blankets, shoes, underwear, stockings, harness, saddles, portable kitchens, portable bungalows, horseshoes, first-aid-to-the-injured kits, etc. Turning back to the files of the daily newspapers in the last three months of last year, it was evident that the soldier on duty along the entrenched line from Switzerland to the English Channel would be well taken care of through the rigors of the winter. Sifting down the exaggerated estimates of foreign contracts to a conservative basis, it then appeared that enough pairs of shoes were being bought to cover as many feet as there were in the State of Pennsylvania, enough blankets, cotton duck, and sheeting to spread a canopy over the greater part of Manhattan Island, with caps, mittens, sweaters, *ad infinitum*. This was also the period when the makers of commercial automobiles, the buyers of horses and mules, dealers in hides and leathers, and the grain-growers of the West began to fill their orders and to reap their unexpected harvests.

In August the exports value of wearing apparel from the United States to other countries was about \$905,000. In December it was \$6,717,000, and in February over \$10,000,000. Between August and March the value of shoe exports increased from

\$522,000 to over \$2,000,000. In the same period, harness and saddles went from \$42,530 to \$3,807,856. In August the value of horses shipped abroad was less than \$100,000. In October it was nearly \$2,000,000, in December over \$7,000,000, and in February over \$9,000,000. Commercial automobiles exported during the first month of the war had a value of \$124,000. Three months later the bill to Europe for this item had risen to \$2,286,964, and in February was over \$3,000,000.

Estimating the shipments of March and April, for which there are as yet no official figures, on the same basis as for February, it will be found that during the first nine months of the war the number and value of the purchases by Europe directly traceable to the requirements of war are as follows:

	Number	Value
Horses .....	200,000	\$50,000,000
Mules .....	35,000	5,000,000
Commercial automobiles ..	7,000	20,000,000
Wearing apparel .....	.....	50,000,000
Harness and saddles.....	.....	15,000,000
Explosives .....	.....	15,000,000
Firearms .....	.....	6,000,000
Machinery for making arms .....	.....	15,000,000
Barbed wire.....	.....	3,500,000

#### GUNS AND SHRAPNEL FROM PENNSYLVANIA

In all, this amounts to less than \$200,000,000. Over 75 per cent. of it represents contracts entered into before January 1. It is from this date that the really big war orders have been given in this country out of which has grown an industrial situation unlike anything ever developed here, and whose ramifications and permanent effects it is not now possible to estimate.

In the early part of last fall, Charles M. Schwab, the head of the Bethlehem Steel Company, made two quick trips to Europe, and while there secured contracts which subsequently produced an earning capacity, for a concern that had never paid dividends, unequaled in the records of the iron and steel trade of the United States. His were the only plants modeled and designed for the exclusive manufacture of heavy guns and shrapnel. In August, owing to the reduced buying power of the railroads and the heavy falling off in building throughout the country, the mills at South Bethlehem, Pa., were running at less than 60 per cent. of capacity and on reduced hours with \$25,000,000 of unfilled orders. By the end of December orders were \$50,000,000 and now nearly \$100,000,000. To-day mills are operated at

full capacity and are employing 15,000 men and distributing \$1,000,000 a month through the pay envelopes. Never has the Lehigh Valley district been so prosperous as now, real estate so high, or savings-bank accounts so large.

#### SMALL ARMS, TOOLS; AND CARTRIDGES FROM CONNECTICUT

Up in Connecticut are the manufacturers of small arms, of tools for making guns and shrapnel, and of cartridges. They all began to be busy a few weeks after war was declared. Plants had to be enlarged and orders farmed out to concerns that in times of peace are content to make clocks, watches, and pianos. The Connecticut Valley, in which industry had drooped for many months, has been feverishly active for the past eight months. The United States Cartridge Company has a contract for 600,000,000 cartridges. This seems an enormous and inexhaustible supply and it is sufficient to keep the company's works running at full pace for a year, but divided into the number of men on the firing line it is not, after all, a very large amount. It represents a value of \$18,000,000 to the holders of the contract.

Lathes in which guns of the largest type, as well as small arms and projectiles, are turned and lathes for turning and boring shells, have been contracted for to the extent of many millions of dollars by the English, French, and Russian governments, and are to be found on the manifests of nearly every vessel sailing from American ports to Liverpool or Bordeaux. Some idea of what all of this means to the business life of Connecticut is indicated in bank clearings of nearly \$30,000,000 in Hartford during the month of April, compared with clearings of \$19,750,000 in October. An interesting aspect of the labor situation in Connecticut is to be found in a recent census taken among the ammunition manufacturing plants of that State where, of 29,000 enumerated, over 8000 were Germans. Recently in Pittsburgh several concerns that were about to start on war orders for the Allies gave their German employees the right to refuse to work on such contracts. Very few availed themselves of the privilege.

By the middle of May war contracts for ammunition already placed in the United States were estimated at \$400,000,000 and contracts for foodstuffs, wearing apparel, horses, automobiles, etc., at \$500,000,000



more. The orders for shrapnel, which ultimately were so much advertised and led to some of the most curious market phenomena that Wall Street has ever witnessed, did not begin to be given until March and April. Very few manufacturers were in a position to take them. Their plants were not equipped for this sort of work and the question of arranging credits was a most difficult one. The first bona-fide contract was that placed through the Canadian Car & Foundry Company, for 5,000,000 shrapnel, at a price of \$83,000,000. This was distributed very generously among equipment building companies on this side of the border.

#### MAKING SHRAPNEL IN CAR AND LOCOMOTIVE WORKS

Concerns that were in the business of building cars and locomotives and making railroad supplies, but whose plants were operating on only 20 to 25 per cent. of capacity, were glad indeed to find employment for their rapidly disintegrating forces and for the capital invested in machinery and buildings, and were willing to install such new machinery as was required for the character of the work. A considerable amount of the machinery installed will have to be "scrapped" after the war is over, but this fact is covered in the profit allowed under the terms of agreement. Several plants have already started to enlarge. The Westinghouse Electric Company, which has secured one order for 2,000,000 rifles and is expecting another for nearly as large an amount, will probably enter permanently into the rifle and ammunition supply business. This presupposes that the management believes increased armament rather than disarmament will be the sequel of the European war.

#### CARS FOR THE RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT RAILROADS

Not all of the orders coming to America are translated into devices that kill or maim. Not a few have a constructive character. These are of the replacement sort. When General Von Hindenburg retreated from Poland after his attempt to enter Warsaw, he destroyed 11,000 freight cars of the Russian Government railway system as well as several hundred locomotives. Destruction of additional equipment probably took place during the battles in the Carpathians in the spring. Russia, like her allies, is turning all of her shops into manu-

factories of war supplies. So she has none available for car-building. Negotiations have been entered into with the Pressed Steel Car Company for the manufacture of between 20,000 and 30,000 cars to replace those lost as well as to increase the original complement. To illustrate the early confidence that Russia had in her ability to march to Berlin, the fact may be cited that in the specifications from which one American equipment builder figured was a provision that the gauge should be adapted to the German railway lines. Orders for steel rails and bridge material have been placed in America by both France and Russia, while England is making up the deficit of several million tons a year of steel normally bought in Germany from the American market.

To make a shrapnel shell requires about twenty-five pounds of steel. About 200,000 tons of steel had been contracted for early in May by shrapnel-makers. This had given some stimulus to the iron and steel industry throughout the East. Pittsburgh bank clearings were slightly larger in April than in October.

#### FINANCING WAR CONTRACTS

The financing of the war-order contracts has been done through several of the largest banking agencies in the country. When the war had developed far enough to make it plain that the United States would have to be drawn on for supplies, foreign governments sent their agents here to make contracts. Overnight large numbers of alleged agents of Great Britain, Russia, and France appeared in New York and began to receive bids for automobiles, blankets, wearing apparel, and foodstuffs. The first experiences of the purchasing nations were extremely costly. Commissions for similar service were frequently paid several times over, and it was reckoned that as much as 50 per cent. had to be added to the actual worth of goods before they were put aboard ship. Russia and France needed supplies so badly that they wasted money in their frantic efforts to get these quickly. It was harvest time for all sorts of commissioners, brokers, middlemen, direct agents, special representatives, and other buyers.

The British Government was the first to adopt a businesslike policy and appointed the banking firm of J. P. Morgan to represent it here in its purchases of war supplies. So important a function was this that the house of Morgan called to its aid

Edward R. Stettinius, president of the Diamond Match Company, who, with a force of nearly 100 assistants, has established an efficient clearing house for all sorts of war munitions. The contracts in many cases have been so large, ranging from \$25,000,000 to \$75,000,000, to companies with a working capital entirely insufficient for such a turn-over, that it was necessary for foreign governments to pay down between 10 and 15 per cent. of the contract price when the deal was closed. Subsequent payments were made at frequent enough intervals so that acceptance of these contracts did not involve the raising of new capital. There have been, of course, stories of fabulous profits, but on the later contracts the net results will not be over 10 or 15 per cent. The greatest value to which the manufacturers point is in keeping their forces intact and in preventing that depreciation which comes to a plant that long stands idle.

It will be midsummer before the maximum effect on the foreign trade of this country of its war orders begins to be felt. Contracts taken six months ago are only just beginning to be filled. Those that were negotiated in March and April require a large amount of preliminary installation of machinery before they can be actively dealt with. If the war carries into 1916 there will probably be a repetition this autumn of orders for heavy wearing apparel which kept many knit-goods and hosiery factories busy between October and spring. There is very little let-up in the demand for wheat and corn or for sugar, chocolate, meats, and other provisions.

#### LACK OF TRANSPORT FACILITIES

The handicap of ocean transport has been a factor in the delivery of articles already manufactured. The withdrawal of such a large amount of shipping through the bottling up of the German merchant marine and the requisitioning by Great Britain of all sorts of craft for the movement of troops has caused a scarcity of ocean freight room never before experienced. Many old abandoned sailing vessels have been brought into service, but their total tonnage has a small effect on total requirements. It is yet too early to determine whether the difficulties of the situation will

increase or not because of the German submarine warfare which reached its climax in the sinking of the *Lusitania*. An increased precaution among ship owners and masters is likely to result.

#### EFFECT ON THE STOCK MARKET

Reference has been made to the curious stock-market developments growing out of the war orders. Not in eight years has Wall Street witnessed the activity that developed toward the end of March and continued in million-share days for nearly six weeks. During that time the stocks of manufacturing companies identified with foreign contracts appreciated in value more rapidly than had any other group in the history of the New York Stock Exchange. Bethlehem Steel was the first to start. From \$30 a share it rose to approximately \$160 a share. The public was fascinated by this performance and on the slightest excuse or on the first exaggerated rumor of new orders rushed in and paid the asking price for stocks that had gone begging a few weeks before because they had not been able to earn dividends.

Instances were multiplied of the trebling and quadrupling of prices within a few weeks. It became a regular thing for quotations of the stocks of ordnance to appear in the newspapers. Some of these advanced from \$200 to \$300 a share. One of them sold as high as \$1500 a share. The craze reminded one of the tulip speculation in Holland some generations ago, and the craze for rubber, tea, and copper shares in London a decade ago. Profits that had been made from the great rise in wheat and later in the advance in cotton were used in promoting some of the most daring stock-market operations ever known. The inevitable collapse came before the *Lusitania* incident had happened. It is to be admitted, however, that new speculative as well as new economic forces have been established by reason of the war which will be permanent in character, and that for years to come a larger proportion of American industry will be devoted to the manufacture of armaments than would have been the case if Europe had not decided last August to argue its differences at the cannon's mouth.





THE PAN-AMERICAN BUILDING IN WASHINGTON, WHERE THE SESSIONS OF THE FINANCIAL CONFERENCE WERE HELD

# PAN-AMERICAN FINANCIAL CONFERENCE

BY ARTHUR WALLACE DUNN

**T**HREE great questions, closely interwoven and dependent upon one another, were the features of the Pan-American Financial Conference which met on May 24. As outlined by Mr. William G. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury, who originated the conference and presided over its deliberations, the three questions were transportation, finance, and commerce, all bound together and each necessary for the purpose of increasing our trade relations with Latin America, which have long been the subject of discussion, but in which little progress has been made. In the opinion of Secretary McAdoo the time is ripe for action, and in place of kind words and expressions of hearty goodwill and benevolent intentions, which have prevailed for a quarter of a century, there should be a definite beginning of a policy which will bring about substantial results.

## EXCHANGE WITH LATIN AMERICA HANDLED IN EUROPE

The Pan-American Financial Conference was the outgrowth of a necessity caused by the war in Europe. Not only did that war disarrange commercial conditions between Europe and South America, but the whole existing financial system was thrown into confusion. Europe has been the banker of

Latin America. The people of the Southern Republics have had their credits in the financial centers of the old world and placed their loans in Europe, and practically all financial exchange between the United States and Latin America has been transacted through European bankers. Although doing a large volume of business with Latin America, the United States transacted 90 per cent. of its exchange through European channels. This has been necessary because the United States had no banking facilities in the southern countries, while Great Britain, Germany, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Spain, Italy, and Austria have established such institutions and in the order named have handled that 90 per cent. of financial business mentioned.

Naturally, commerce has been impeded by the lack of a system of financial exchange. Much time is consumed in sending exchange from the United States to Europe, and from Europe to a South American port. The money of the United States is turned into pounds sterling, francs, marks, or whatever may be the money unit of the country through which the transfer is made, and then turned into the money of the country where payment is made. It is a cumbersome transaction, and it is little short of amazing that no suc-

cessful effort has been made to establish direct lines of financial communication between the United States and South America. Failure to do so can only be explained on the ground that American financiers have found in other fields a more profitable employment for their capital, and that there has not been that hearty coöperation between the men trading in South America and the bankers which is necessary to bring about the best commercial results.

Commercial and financial relations between Europe and South America have been interrupted by the war, affording the United States an opportunity to carry out the idea of a stronger commercial union with South and Central America, which was the mainspring of the first Pan-American conference and which has been urged with more insistence than success ever since. In the past all efforts to increase American trade with the Latin Republics of the Western Hemisphere have been hampered by a lack of direct transportation facilities. This is felt now more than ever when shipping has been curtailed and finances disarranged by the European war. Not only do American business men feel the necessity of action, but in South America the situation is becoming more and more acute, especially in the matter of finance.

#### INDIRECT TRANSPORTATION

Just as money was sent around by way of Europe, so, also, that was the principal route of travel. People passed to and fro between the United States and South America by way of Europe. That route never was desirable by those who were traveling on business rather than pleasure, and now it is particularly undesirable. The lines of travel and the shipments of freight no doubt have had a great influence upon finance, as money has followed the route of trade. It is true, how-

ever, that Europe has been the banker of the world on account of the financial strength of her people and the ability of her moneyed men to grant loans and carry credits. This has been true particularly in regard to South American countries where there is a demand for long-time credits and whose loans have not always been as attractive to American financiers as certain investments nearer home.



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SECRETARY MCADOO, WHO PLANNED THE CONFERENCE AND PRESIDED OVER ITS SESSIONS

#### THE PERSONNEL

The idea of a financial conference came to Secretary McAdoo when the Shipping bill was first considered by Congress in the fall of 1914. Investigation of transportation necessities for South America showed him that a system of finance was also one of the needs if our commerce with the Southern countries was to be established and maintained upon a firm basis. When he suggested a Pan-American Financial Conference it met the hearty approval of President Wilson and the governments of Latin America. Congress appropriated \$50,000 for the entertainment of the delegates and expenses of the conference. Invitations were sent to all the governments and eighteen of the twenty responded and were represented in the conference. Each country was requested to send three delegates, and in naming these representatives the various countries selected the foremost financial and business men of their respective nations. In addition each country was represented in the conference by its Ambassador or Minister to the United States.

Secretary McAdoo appointed 110 business men in all walks of life and from every section of the country as delegates on the part of the United States; and in addition the members of the President's Cabinet, the Counselor and Assistant Secretaries of State, the Comptroller of Currency and other members of the Federal Reserve Board, the As-



sistant Secretaries of the Treasury, the Federal Trade Commission, the Federal Reserve agents, the governors of Federal Reserve banks, the members of the Federal Advisory Council, and the Director-General of the Pan-American Union.

WELCOMED BY THE PRESIDENT AND SECRETARY MCADOO

The conference assembled in the handsome Pan-American building in Washington. President Wilson, in behalf of the government and people of the United States welcomed the delegates from the southern countries, expressing the hope that such a representative body of business men from Latin America, meeting with men of similar character and like occupations in this country, would accomplish results which had been desired for many years. In speaking of the friendly relations existing between the United States and the other American Republics he expressed the belief that they would draw nearer and nearer together, not only in their commercial relations, but in an international brotherhood for the glory of the whole American continent. Each country represented responded through one of its chosen representatives, cordially thanking the President for his words of good-will and voicing the general belief that the present time was auspicious for building up closer diplomatic and commercial relations.

Secretary McAdoo, the progenitor of the conference, in his address outlined the aims and purposes for which it was called. Although it assembled as a financial conference, he said there were two other equally important subjects, transportation and commerce, which, with finance, should be considered, as all three were interwoven and dependent upon one another in bringing about a larger volume of trade between the United States and the southern countries, which in reality was the main object of this important gathering. In the opinion of Secretary McAdoo transportation was the prime factor of the three questions before the conference, and this, he hoped, would be solved so far as the American Government could do so by providing adequate shipping facilities to carry mails and merchandise to and from the ports of South America and the United States. Even in the matter of financial exchange transportation was necessary. There were three methods by which money was transferred from one country to another, one was by cable telegraph, one by physical shipment, and the other by mail in bills of exchange.

By far the greater bulk of money transfer was by mail. Both physical and mail transfer required transportation, and, in fact, better facilities of transportation would be the forerunner of the establishment of a better method of financial exchange.

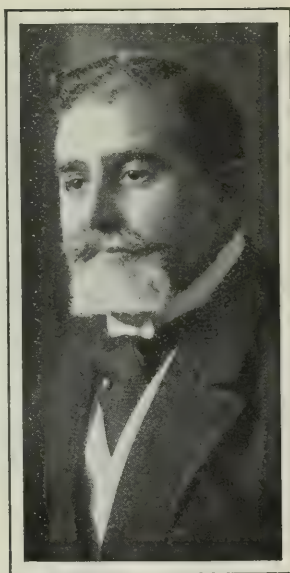
The Secretary expressed his regret that the Shipping bill failed in the last Congress of the United States, saying that it specifically mentioned South America and provided that ships purchased under its terms must be used to establish lines to South American ports. The Secretary had faith to believe that Congress, seeing necessity for ships in the trade with South America, would make provision for them in the next session. At present the United States was operating a line of ships to Panama under the old Panama Railroad charter. The corporation had a charter from the State of New York, but the Government owned the stock and operated the steamships. There was no reason why the route of these ships should not be extended to Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires, and it was possible to issue bonds to the amount of forty million dollars to purchase ships for this line and extend its activities to many ports in South America. Increased shipping facilities would be followed by increased trade, hence an improved system of financial exchange became imperative.

Even with the present volume of commerce between the United States and South America the Secretary said the present method of exchange was cumbersome, and profitable only to Europeans. The transactions were largely through European banks, and not only did this cause unnecessary delay, but the profits went to European bankers. The delay in such monetary transactions the Secretary deemed important, as the interest on large amounts of money was worth considering. To remedy the present undesirable condition was the principal object of the conference; that was why it was called a financial conference. The United States desired to do its part; what our people wanted was to learn from the bankers and business men of the southern countries the best method to pursue in order to bring about the desirable results. If possible the United States would like to have the people of South America establish their credits and place their loans in this country instead of in Europe. It was the hope of financiers that the United States might become the great banker of the American continent, if not of the world. As a step in that direction it would be necessary for the business men of the southern coun-

tries and those of this country to meet together, confer, plan, and agree upon a method of procedure to accomplish that which everybody concerned was anxious should result.

That the United States Government, on its own initiative, was willing to do its part was indicated by the Secretary when he said that the Federal Reserve act authorized the establishment of branch banks in foreign countries. That the Government was willing to enter upon this foreign banking business through the Federal Reserve banks was clearly the purpose of Secretary McAdoo as soon as sufficient information was at hand upon which action could be taken. American bankers, in the opinion of the Secretary, were earnestly seeking opportunities to establish branch banks in South and Central America, and would do so when the transportation facilities were improved and commerce increased to an extent which would insure reasonable returns. He expressed the belief that members of the conference, earnest in their desire to improve the material conditions of all the people of America, would

way the questions presented. Following the program suggested by Secretary McAdoo the discussion in the conference of all the delegates covered only phases in which all countries were mutually interested and was necessarily confined to



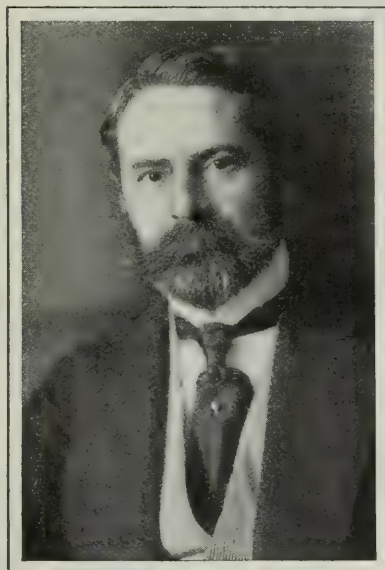
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RICARDO C. ALDAO, FORMER  
MINISTER OF FINANCE FOR  
THE PROVINCE OF BUENOS  
AIRES, ARGENTINA

generalities, statements of conditions, and possibilities of development.

#### IMPORTANT WORK OF SUB-COMMITTEES

The really important work of the conference was done by sub-committees. Secretary McAdoo appointed eighteen of these committees, one for each of the countries represented. Each sub-committee consisted of the delegates from one country and a number of delegates from the United



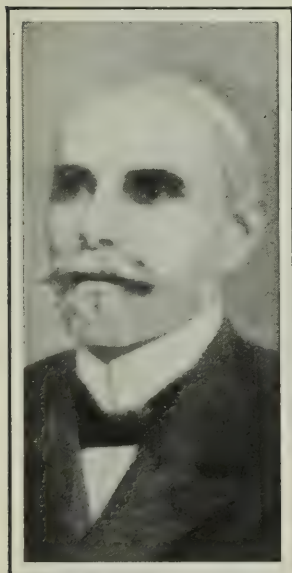
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SAMUEL HALE PEARSON, OF  
ARGENTINA

(A leading banker and business man of Buenos Aires, where his father and grandfather, of Boston, Mass., preceded him in the management of the business of which he is now president.)

find a solution of States. This division was made for the purpose of allowing the delegates from each country to present to a committee of United States delegates the conditions and requirements of that individual country in the matter of finances, commerce, and resources. It afforded each country an opportunity to give freely and without restraint information concerning municipal and industrial openings for loans, securities for investments, prospective enterprises; possibilities for branch banking institutions, etc, which would have been impracticable or impossible to bring before the full

The conference as a whole took up in a general



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DR. AMARO CAVALCANTI, FORMERLY JUDGE OF THE BRAZILIAN SUPREME COURT





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LUIS IZQUIERDO

(Former Minister of Foreign Affairs)



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AUGUSTO VILLANUEVA

(Director-General of the Bank of Chile)

## DELEGATES FROM CHILE

conference. And it was also true that the statements would not be so free and frank in the open conference as under the plan adopted.

It had been determined that the proceedings of the sub-committees were to be considered confidential, except such features as the delegates were willing should be reported to the conference and published as a part of the proceedings. Under this plan the delegates from each country felt free to say all they desired to their confrères on the sub-committee from the United States and give such information as they deemed necessary in regard to the financial and commercial conditions of their country, the municipal and public service improvements contemplated, etc., and only such portions were made a part of the conference records as they deemed expedient. Secretary McAdoo believed that the business men of the United States attending the conference would in this way acquire fuller information such as they were seeking and a better understanding of the conditions in the different countries than in any other way.

Secretary McAdoo, in advance of the meeting of the Conference, outlined the scope and suggested a number of topics which the sub-committees might with advantage consider, which included the following:

1. The present financial needs in national, state, and local governments; nature and character of public loans; how secured; rates of interest thereon; where such loans have heretofore been placed, and the price at which they have been sold; possibility of placing such loans in the United States; effect of the European war on public revenues and expenditures; relation of decline of public revenues to guarantees of payment of interest and principal.

2. The normal and financial needs of public service companies; present needs of such companies; character and nature of the bonds or obligations they have to offer; how secured, etc.; possible conditions of financing in the United States; effect of the European war on such companies; their financial condition and needs.

3. Normal financial needs of commerce, such, for instance, as credit facilities; direct or dollar exchange; possibility of adapting commercial credits in the United States to the needs of the countries of Central and South America; effect of European war on the financing of foreign commerce.

4. Transportation between the United States and the country or countries concerned; improved postal service involved in money-orders, parcel post, etc.

## SPIRIT OF THE GATHERING

It was not expected that in four or five days these delegates from Latin America and the United States could consider all the questions presented, solve them and outline a definite plan of procedure. The conference did show, however, a desire and determination to bring about closer commercial relations and the establishment of facilities which will make such a result possible. The interest the delegates showed, and the ear-



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IGNACIO CALDERON

(Bolivian Minister)



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ISAAC ALZAMORA

(Former Vice-President of Peru)

ness of their purpose, promises success for the general object of the conference.

The visit of the Latin-American delegates to different cities in the eastern part of the United States gave them an opportunity to see a portion of the country, the character and size of our cities, large manufacturing plants, and, what was more important, they could learn from personal contact and conversation that our people have a real interest in our neighbors on this continent.

As the European war, interrupting commerce and finance, made a movement such as the financial conference necessary, so that same war has drawn the peoples of all America into closer relations, made them feel a dependency upon each other in commercial and international relationships. That spirit was manifest from the time the conference was proposed, and it was further apparent in the speeches of welcome and response, as well as in the more prosaic business features of the meeting. It is evident that Pan-Americanism has taken on a more comprehensive and important meaning and will have far-reaching effect upon the American continent.



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PEDRO COSÍO

(Minister of Finance, Uruguay)

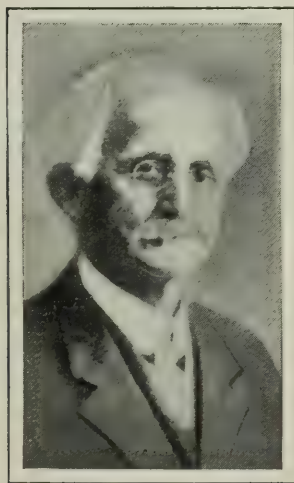


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MARIANO GUARDIA

(Minister of Finance, Costa Rica)

It was announced that a tour of the Central West and East tendered to the delegates from Central and South America by the United States Government would begin on May 31 and would include Annapolis, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, Chicago, Detroit, Niagara Falls, Buffalo, the General Electric Works at Schenectady, N. Y., Boston, and New York, where the journey will be completed on June 15.



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DR. PABLO DESVERNINE

(Cuban Secretary of State and former Secretary of the Treasury)



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ALFONSO QUINONES

(Vice-President and former President of Salvador)



SANTIAGO TRIANO

(Formerly Colombian Minister to Great Britain)



# AN INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

BY JEREMIAH W. JENKS

(Professor of Government in New York University)

[Professor Jenks, himself, was one of the most prominent participants in the Cleveland conference, contributing in various ways to the success of the gathering.—THE EDITOR.]

ONE of the catch-words of the great World Court Congress held last week, at Cleveland, was: "In times of war prepare for peace." There can be no doubt that the accumulating horrors of the present war are turning the minds of the people of all countries, neutral as well as belligerent, toward peace as never before. Months ago leaders of both belligerents were saying through grim lips that the war must not, should not, end until the opposing power had been placed beyond the possibility of ever again forcing such a dire calamity upon mankind. As the war drags on and it becomes more and more evident that there is to be no crushing victory for either side, belligerent and neutral nations alike are casting about for methods, other than the absolute weakness of a vengeful or greedy rival, that shall be sure decidedly to lessen, if not absolutely to prevent, the evils of wars in the future.

Practical men, wise statesmen, hesitate to adopt revolutionary ideas. They prefer distinctly to base important changes in government upon precedent, upon plans that have been tested, and then gradually to develop from these plans needed new institutions. It has been with these thoughts in mind that Mr. John Hays Hammond, as chairman of the committee of one hundred distinguished leaders of thought, business, and government, has taken up again the idea of an international court before which the governments of the nations may appear to find a solution for their international justiciable problems.

At the last Hague Conference in 1907, on the joint motion of the governments of Germany, Great Britain, and the United States, with the coöperation of France, Russia, and the other great powers, there was put forward the project of an international arbitral court of justice which was endorsed by the unanimous approval of the forty-four nations

represented at the Conference. This was a practical, most helpful beginning. It has so far failed of realization only because the governments have not been able to agree upon a satisfactory method of selecting the judges and organizing the court. The great powers naturally wish to be sure that each has a permanent representation. The small nations are naturally insistent upon the principle of sovereignty in international matters and wish a larger measure of representation than to the others seems practicable, since too large a court would almost certainly partake too much of the nature of a political assembly. Under the pressure of the times, however, it seems eminently reasonable and probable that plans well thought out may be not only acceptable but welcomed at the close of the war by a sufficient number of states to insure a permanent establishment of such a court, whose decisions would settle finally all questions of a justiciable nature.

In the great meeting at Cleveland, before an audience which packed to the doors the great armory of the Cleveland Grays (a significant place for a meeting to further the cause of peace among nations), Judge Alton B. Parker, in a significant address, lauded the patriotic endeavors of former President Taft to forward the movement toward lessening war by arbitration treaties, denouncing the Senate for the defeat of this purpose, and introduced ex-President Taft, whose learned and eloquent address made the plan for a World Court appear eminently practicable through its close analogy to the United States Supreme Court, and that Court's treatment of questions that are justiciable.

In later meetings other important phases of the question were discussed. The growth of the judicial element in international arbitration was carefully traced. The much-disputed question of the composition of the

World Court and the best form for its organization were fully treated, both by the Hon. Theodore Marburg, the former United States Minister at Brussels, who presided at the meeting, and by Mr. Emerson McMillin, of New York City, who presented a detailed plan providing for the selection of judges by an electoral college to be chosen by the different nations, who should have an equal representation as regards their sovereignty, but have further representation in the college in proportion to their population and to the extent of their commerce. A series of papers and important suggestions regarding the possibilities and limitations of a World Court were presented by the former United States Ambassador to Mexico, the Hon. Henry Lane Wilson, by Judge D. D. Woodmansee, of Cincinnati, and the Hon. William W. Foulke, of Indiana, the latter giving a most suggestive and interesting comparison between the Supreme Court in the days of the American Confederation and the World Court, which, if organized now, must of necessity be a supreme court for a loosely knit federation instead of for a federal state such as is the United States.

The question of the minimum number of nations required to inaugurate the court successfully was discussed under the chairmanship of the Hon. James Brown Scott, one of the United States representatives at the last Hague Conference, and by President Harry A. Garfield, of Williams College. In later meetings plans for promoting the World Court and the relation of a World Court to a possible league of peace, presented by Professor Samuel T. Dutton, were given; while on the final evening a number of eloquent addresses on the relation of the international court to international welfare were made.

Such a court would be able to settle very many important differences between nations; but there would still be left many questions not legal or justiciable in form or nature. Those arise from conflicting advantages of a political nature and must be settled, not by legal methods, but rather by diplomatic means or by other procedure which will bring about substantial justice, regardless of the technicalities of a legal claim. As between individuals, the suggestions of a friendly, fair-minded third person often leads to amicable settlements of disputes, so is it suggested that for non-justiciable questions there may well be created commissions of inquiry such as those provided for at the Hague Conference and which settled satisfactorily

so serious and dangerous an incident as the sinking of the English trawlers off the Dogger Banks by the Russian fleet during the Russo-Japanese war. Still further, there may be provided, as in the case of many disputes between employers and their workmen, councils of conciliation in international affairs, whose function it shall be not only to inquire and ascertain the facts, but also to suggest to both parties methods of compromise and agreement which, backed by the public opinion of non-interested nations, may well settle many political difficulties without the employment of force.

For the settlement of the gravest questions, and for making certain the acceptance of decisions of international courts or the advice of councils of conciliation, it seems to be generally agreed that there must ultimately come the establishment of a league of peace which shall embrace within its membership so large a proportion of nations, both powerful and weak, that through their joint opinions, or possibly through their joint action, any recalcitrant nation would find it wise never to resort to force.

Such a league of peace may well be in contemplation if only for the distant future. But the darkness of the shadows at present overhanging the world seems to impart a touch of real hope, even of reality, to the vision of such a league of peace. In order to secure action, it is not sufficient to convince men's intellects; it is necessary to move their hearts. Men and nations do not act from knowledge. They make decisions and accomplish results only when their emotions are stirred. It is well, therefore, to have the vision of a league of peace as the ultimate aim, even though men realize that important matters of world-wide significance must be reached gradually, step by step. The beginning must be made with an international court of justice, and this is what the congress at Cleveland contemplated.

The eloquent addresses not only stirred the enthusiasm of the great audiences, but men of statesmanlike minds were looking forward to practical, definite results. Before the Congress adjourned, steps were taken to make the committee of one hundred a permanent body, with an executive committee to be appointed by the chairman, whose business it should be to continue the education of the public opinion of the United States and of the world and so to organize this public opinion, with the aid of other associations, of legislative bodies and of the press, that it will prove of distinct assistance



to the administration at Washington, which has seemed ready at any fitting moment to support practically, not only any movement toward securing peace at the end of the present war, but also to do its utmost to hinder in the future the evils and to check the likelihood of war. It is also suggested that the committee do not wait for some indefinite date in the future before it begins its work, but that it immediately take steps to influence public opinion; to approach our own government; even, should this seem in

its discretion wise, to take up in foreign countries with individuals close to, and influential with their governments, the idea of formulating plans for the establishment, at the earliest practicable moment, of an international court of justice. Such a movement, if well received in the belligerent countries, as there is good reason to believe it would be, may well prove to be an important factor at the end of the present war in determining satisfactory conditions for the establishment of long-continued peace.

# HOW TO UNIFY THE PEACE MOVEMENT

BY F. HERBERT STEAD

[Mr. Stead, who has for twenty years been warden of the Robert Browning Settlement that he founded in the heart of London, is also eminent as a leader in religious and social activities, and widely known both in England and America as a writer and speaker. Like his brother, the late William T. Stead, he has from the beginning been especially active in promoting the cause of international peace. His advocacy of the further development of the functions of the tribunals and conferences that center in the Peace Palace at The Hague, is wholly in line with the current movements in the United States that are explained by Professor Jenks in the article that precedes this.—THE EDITOR.]

**"NEVER** was the Will-to-Peace so deep and widespread as now." So writes me a Swiss soldier as he listens to the thunder of French and German guns in the greatest war the world has known.

The contrast is curious,—between the Will and the Deed.

The Will-to-Peace, right round the world, is infinitely stronger than the Will-to-War.

But the lesser force is compact, well-organized, and resolute. The greater force is scattered, unorganized, irresolute.

One ton of gunpowder within the narrow, well-directed tubes of a few cannon will accomplish far more than a million tons of the same stuff burning loose over a mountain range. If only we could concentrate the million tons of peace-power as the ton of war-power is concentrated, the Switzer's paradox would be impossible. There would be no war.

The great need of the hour is to focus and direct the pacific purpose of the planet.

The need is perhaps most acute in the United States, for on this nation the greatest issues depend. I have been in this country not three weeks. But I have been long enough to feel, pervading American society like an atmosphere, a noble passion for peace.

Were it only compressed within the grooves of one straight purpose and trained on one sure mark, the result would be commensurate with the place and dignity of the nation.

But alas! the heterogeneity of its aims is positively bewildering. Any number of groups, actuated by the most praiseworthy motives, are rushing hither and thither, proclaiming as many panaceas, announcing this, that, or the other improvised specific, with scarcely a thought of combination, or of the main line of historical evolution, or of the prospect of securing effective agreement.

Of most of these miscellaneous proposals I have no hard word to say. They reflect more or less clearly the amiable character of the minds that produce them. They may be very useful as educative auxiliaries to a better-focused aim. But it seems to me that there is a great danger of their frittering away the immense fund of pacific energy.

"Divide and conquer" was the motto of the victorious Roman. "Be divided and be conquered" expresses the weakness of vanquished Peace.

Can we not avoid this grave disaster?

Can we not,—to change the metaphor,—crystallize the supersaturated solution of American Will-to-Peace round some definite, practicable point?

Pardon an outsider,—even after only a week or two in this country,—offering suggestions. Perhaps an onlooker may sometimes see more of the game than those who are playing it.

The first plain step towards concentration is to inquire whether, over against the shoal of proposed congresses and conferences, there is any one recognized and established organ for expressing officially the will of mankind. Assemblies of women, assemblies of organized labor, assemblies of neutrals, may do valuable preparatory work. But they are sectional. They are unofficial. They are yet to be improvised. Is there no existing and official center round which all our efforts can be grouped?

To put the question is to answer it.

There is The Hague Conference. It is there, rooted in history. It has been twice convened, assembled, and by all the governments of the world accepted. It is clearly the appointed means for eliciting, formulating, and effecting the collective Purpose of Mankind.

Yet in much of the peace-talk and peace-print how little reference has been made to The Hague! If it be mentioned at all, the mention is strangely inadequate.

"Oh, but The Hague Conventions have been shown so powerless of late! They have been violated without scruple: and not a power has uttered a cheep of effective protest!"

This common retort is a good argument for strengthening The Hague Conference. It is no argument at all for ignoring it: still less for turning aside to other conferences more partial, less official, and therefore more impotent.

Let me, after this preamble, briefly suggest:

(1) That all peace-makers,—as distinguished from mere peace-dreamers and peace-talkers,—concentrate on preparation for the Third Hague Conference;

(2) That as soon as ever practicable after the cessation of hostilities the Third Hague Conference be convened;

(3) That the United States, as the one neutral power of the first magnitude, as friend and kinsman of all the nations, and as the power that courteously waived her intention to summon the Second Hague Conference, should be the convener of the third. (I am glad to learn that this point is pretty well taken for granted in diplomatic circles.)

(4) That as there is no time or disposition to prepare, as suggested by the Second

Conference, by national committees four years beforehand and an international committee two years beforehand, the United States draw up the convening circular, including methods of procedure and draft of program.

(5) That the United States should invite every power to send its most powerful and representative statesmen to The Hague, not to emit pious wishes or academic resolutions, but for prompt, resolute, and drastic action;

(6) That the agenda should include:

(a) A solemn agreement or decree that all disputes *without exception*, not settled by diplomacy, *shall* be submitted to The Hague Tribunal and by it finally decided;

(b) Decree that war shall cease to be a method of settling disputes and that except as a police measure by the central office shall be treated on land as brigandage and on sea as piracy;

(c) Sanctions to enforce Hague decisions on any recalcitrant nation,—(i) by economic boycott, or severance of every means of communication with the offending people (post, trade, passenger, telegraph, etc.); (ii) in last resort by the armed force of an international police;

(d) That The Hague Conference meet oftener and with automatic regularity;

(e) That the present Administrative Council (diplomatic body at The Hague) act as executive when the conference is not in session, under a president elected by the conference;

(f) Concerted and obligatory disarmament of all the powers, down to the point of force needed to maintain order within each nation: evasion or defiance of this rule to be prevented by the sanctions mentioned above;

(g) Restriction to national factories (or to one international factory under Hague control) of the manufacture of weapons and engines of war.

Exception may be taken to the lesser details of this program.

The great essential is that all peace efforts be concentrated on preparation for the Third Hague Conference, and that the American people help its government to formulate an effective program.

If Americans have faith enough and courage enough and sufficient business sense, to make the world's Will-to-Peace effective at the Third Hague Conference, they will add to the glory of having abolished slavery the greater glory of extirpating war.



# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## TOPICS IN THE CURRENT PERIODICALS

THE first number of the *North American Review* was published in the month of May, 1815. The completion of the first century of the magazine's existence is signalized by the adoption of a blue and white cover and the inclusion of several halftone illustrations, including portraits of William Dean Howells and Henry Cabot Lodge, who were editors of the *North American* in the early '70's. There is also a portrait of Alexander H. Everett, the seventh editor (1830-1836). And perhaps the most interesting reproduction of all is the facsimile of a letter from Thomas Jefferson renewing his subscription. Senator Lodge contributes several pages of reminiscences of his connection with the magazine, but for the record of the *North American's* earlier history the reader is referred to preceding numbers in the current year in which have appeared the portraits of earlier editors with biographical sketches. A leading article of the current number is contributed by Mr. Howells, who gives reasons for his faith in the ultimate triumph of the Allies. His chief reason is summed up in the fact that England is—

the land that freemen till,  
That sober-suited Freedom chose,  
The land where, girl with friends or foes,  
A man may speak the things he will.—

and that in Germany he may not, without danger of going to jail for it.

John Galsworthy contributes a frank and piquant "Diagnosis of the Englishman." This is Mr. Galsworthy's conception of the Englishman's adaptation to the situation that he is now facing:

I freely confess that from an æsthetic point of view the Englishman, devoid of high lights and shadows, coated with drab, and superhumanly steady on his feet, is not too attractive. But for the wearing, tearing, slow, and dreadful business of this war, the Englishman—fighting of his own free will, unimaginative, humorous, competitive, practical, never in extremes, a dumb, inveterate optimist, and terribly tenacious—is equipped with Victory.

In an article on the neutralization of the sea Norman Angell, author of "The Great

Illusion," calls attention to the extraordinary powers included in sea supremacy and demands that such supremacy in future be subject to an international control, which will assure the terms of the exercise to Western powers, as a whole, among whom the United States will have an important place.

An article by George Louis Beer in the *May Forum* sets forth some of the supposed advantages of an alliance between the United States and Great Britain. One-quarter of the world's population is already embraced within the British Empire, and Mr. Beer holds that if a world community is ever to develop this is its logical point of departure. The only great powers whose civilization is untainted by militarism and whose aim is thoroughly and genuinely pacific, says Mr. Beer, are America and Great Britain. These two nations, then, might well take the initiative in a movement of this kind.

The June *Atlantic* has four noteworthy articles on aspects of the war,—“Germany's Resources Under the Blockade,” by W. J. Ashley; “Herd Instinct and the War,” by Gilbert Murray; “Arms and Man,” by Henry W. Nevinnson, and “The Cost of the War,” by Roland G. Usher. A noteworthy discussion of “Nation-Wide Prohibition” is contributed to this number by L. Ames Brown, and the fourth chapter of Lilian D. Wald's studies of social life on New York's East Side is devoted to “Children and Work.”

The May and June numbers of *Scribner's* contain installments of Edith Wharton's accounts of what she saw in Paris and in the battle zone, and continue General Goethals' own story of the building of the Panama Canal.

In *Harper's* for June Judge E. H. Gary writes on the problem of unemployment. The publication of John Hay's letters while Secretary of State is continued, and Alice Cowdery describes the coastwise voyage from San Francisco to Panama, sketching little-known cities and inland journeys.

An important feature of the June *Century* is Dr. H. G. Dwight's discussion of the future of Turkey in Asia.

## THE SCHOLARS' WAR

NO phase of intellectual development was more prominent during the early years of the twentieth century than the progress of internationalism among scholars. An initial event of the century was the foundation of the International Association of Academies. The International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, the International Institute of Agriculture, and several other co-operative scientific enterprises of the first magnitude belong wholly to this century, which has also seen the strengthening of other and earlier bonds that united the best intellects of the world in efforts for the common good of humanity.

Would anyone have believed that a quarrel of the political and military castes of European countries would enlist as active and violent partisans the very scholars who only yesterday evinced such interest in promoting the solidarity of mankind? If possible, the scholars' war in Europe has been waged in a more ignoble spirit of chauvinism than the war of armies and governments.

On this subject the *Scientific American* says, in a recent editorial:

It is evident that men of science,—unless they throw patriotism overboard altogether,—must curtail their habitual relations with their colleagues in a hostile country in time of war, but it does not follow that these relations must be completely abandoned, even for the time being; much less that future relations should be embittered by intemperate acts and words during the period of hostilities.

The European war will not last forever. When it is over, intercourse will necessarily be resumed embroiled. There are many scientific enterprises that absolutely depend upon international co-operation, and there is no branch of science in which such coöperation is not helpful. Will not many European *savants* then have cause to regret the gratuitous slurs they are now casting wholesale upon the science of the enemy? This campaign of vituperation has been, in some quarters, as actively carried on as the military and naval operations.

It is gratifying to learn that the extravagant feud which has arisen between the scholars of the belligerent countries has aroused grave misgivings in Europe itself. This finds expression in a propaganda recently launched in Switzerland, a country where Germanic and Gallic civilizations meet and interfuse. Messrs. P. Häberlin and G. de Reynold, representing, respectively, the German and French elements in the intellectual life of Switzerland, are trying to bring about a *rapprochement*,—or at least such improvement of relations as may be

practicable,—between the embroiled scholars, and to this end have addressed a manifesto and a list of subjects for deliberation to the intellectual leaders of all European countries. They have also decided to carry on their propaganda by means of an international journal, the *Revue des Nations*.

A circular issued by these two would-be mediators at the beginning of the present year is quoted in the *Revue de Paris* by Gustave Lanson, who comments on their plan from the point of view of the French scholar. This circular, after reviewing the war that has been waged "pen in hand," and the consequences of which threaten civilization itself, proceeds:

The war is only a transitory condition, of which peace is the logical conclusion and the aim. From it must issue a new world and new forms. But in a society devoid of impartiality and critical spirit, of humanity and justice, how are this new world and these new forms to be realized or even conceived? Man is not made for hate and isolation; the time will come when the nations will meet again and recommence their collaboration; if not, civilization is no longer possible.

Such is our faith. Hence we address ourselves to all persons who have kept intact their *sang-froid* and their reason, to whatever nation they may belong. For common duties and reciprocal relations are obligatory, in spite of the war.

We are neutral, but our political neutrality obliges us not to remain neutral morally. It impels us to action. Moreover, we are convinced that many persons, even among the belligerents, cherish similar sentiments and are trying to preserve their impartiality, reason, and calm.

We should like to reëstablish on our neutral soil the broken contact between the intellectual representatives of the belligerent nations, but a contact not affecting in any respect personal convictions or patriotic sentiments. We are far from being Utopians. We have no idea of making ourselves, at present, heralds or agencies of peace.

This benevolent plan has obtained the support of several eminent scholars in both warring and neutral countries. Lord Bryce is mentioned among the English adherents. Nevertheless, it is somewhat disconcerting to find that Messrs. Häberlin and de Reynold have drawn up a long list of "thèmes et enquêtes," which, apparently, they expect the "intellectuals" of Europe to discuss in a dispassionate, academic spirit, while swords are still clashing and bullets still flying. M. Lanson comments with bitter satire upon these proposed inquiries,—the investigation of "the influence of war on the arts," and all the rest. They are, indeed, so inopportune,—so obviously futile,—that we refrain from enumerating them.



On the other hand, the general idea of providing for future harmonious relations among the scholars of the nations now at war with one another,—of preventing the effervescence of jealousy and other passions that are not inseparable from a state of war,—even of maintaining such intellectual communication and coöperation as may be possible while the war is still raging,—all this must appeal strongly to the good sense of the world at large.

M. Lanson thus defines his own view of the situation:

Do I then cheerfully take the position that all intellectual bonds are broken between the Germans and the French? Alas! how can I ignore the facts? These bonds were broken when all Germany flung herself upon Belgium, when she

declared her solidarity with her emperor and her army in their methods of war. Nevertheless, all intellectual bonds are never wholly broken between nations. Intellectual communion will remain between the French and certain German geniuses that belong to the world,—Goethe, Kant, Beethoven. And never will our scholars prohibit the use of German science and German books, or deprive German inventors of their glory. Never will they descend to the level of the illustrious trans-Rhenan professor who, we are told, wrote a history of chemistry without mentioning Lavoisier or Berthelot.

Such, it seems to me, is the only sort of communion that can, for the present, exist between the Germans and the French; we can have no contact except in the ideal world. As to the friendly collaboration that we are asked to resume, that is impossible. And it will remain impossible until the time when another Germany shall have made us forget Prussian Germany. . . . In any case, we French have only to bide our time.

## EUROPE'S FUTURE

ABSORBINGLY interesting as are the present issues of the titanic struggle raging across the seas, they pale in significance before those that will arise at its conclusion. To settle those vast questions so that scourges like the present should be rendered impossible in the future it will take a veritable Solomon.

The noted German jurist, Professor Osterrieth, has recently issued a work entitled "The Causes and Aims of the European War" (*Die Ursachen und Ziele der europäischen Kriegen*); his conclusions, based upon historical and logical grounds, are embodied in a most noteworthy and weighty article in the *Umschau* (Frankfort-on-the-Main).

To give some of his leading points: How can the danger of Europe's self-destruction be exorcised? he asks. How can future wars be precluded? Evidently by the removal of the historic causes of conflict. In the case of France and England this is conceivably possible without their relinquishing any essential interests. The *revanche* idea of the former could be buried if she were spared a renewed, severe humiliation,—such as any considerable loss of territory: defeat alone, by a superior force, would be no disgrace after her brave struggle. The one condition that Germany must demand of France is that she shall abidingly desist from warlike enterprises against her.

Outside of the *revanche* idea there are no serious causes of opposition between the two nations. In the activities of peace and the common European interests they could live

in enduring harmony. A firm coalition of the two countries would prove a blessing to themselves and the rest of Europe.

Similar conditions might obtain between England and Germany. Within Europe itself the interests of the two coincide; outside of it, England, with its vast colonial possessions, could afford to see Germany rounding out and fortifying its position in Central Africa. At any rate, a peaceful and lasting solution presupposes that England shall lower her haughty attitude toward Germany, regard her as an equally privileged nation.

The idea of a union of Germany, France, England, Austro-Hungary, and the European Central and lesser powers, under the cognomen "United States of Europe," has often been discussed and as often ridiculed as a utopian dream. Yet it looms up once more with compelling force. Perhaps the widespread havoc wrought by the present war has forcibly convinced the nations that the return of such conflicts must be averted under any circumstances, and that the only means to secure that end is the federation of the European countries in a political union.

The idea of a European federation is a necessary deduction from historical facts and the demands of to-day. Wars are bloody conflicts of communities for the maintenance of their power and existence. In olden times war was waged between tribes, cities; later, between federations, States. In the fifteenth century the English nobles still fought against each other. In the Middle Ages Burgundy and Navarre waged war against France. And in Germany? Not fifty years

ago, the South was at war with the North. Though culturally and politically still at variance, the idea that Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden might to-day rise up against Prussia is so idiotic that it would only strike the extravagant fancy of a violent foe of Germany.

The development of this impulse towards federation, of extension from small to great, which has led to the formation of the present European States, is not yet concluded. Its further evolution points to a union of the European countries. To-day Europe is the community which it behooves the world to defend against outside powers. Compared to the dangers which threaten that little spot upon the globe, even the differences which led to the present conflict shrink into insignificance.

Europe is a community which by race, culture, and history forms a unit. It is divided from Asia and Africa by race, culture, and historical tradition. America is an offshoot; it has no part in European traditions. It is a new world which must build up a new civilization only by dint of generations of spiritual effort.

Political interests, too, point to a federation of Europe. The power of a country is created and maintained by the strength of its land and sea forces.

The geographical distribution of the European continent, with its rich variety, imposes different tasks upon its different states.

The British island domain has created a world power at sea. It has no considerable land forces and never will have, because of its lack of space and land boundaries. Germany is the greatest European land-power. But by its natural position on the Baltic, which is almost an inland sea, and on the North Sea, guarded by England, she will never have a favorable chance to develop her sea-power,—as long as she cannot push her way to the ocean.

France, with a broad sea-coast and eastern frontier, has a double burden of maintaining a land and sea force. She has lost supremacy on land and sea, nor will she ever recover it. She is not equal to battle alone against England or Germany.

In view of these natural conditions, conflicts between these three states seem hopeless in advance. United, on the other hand, they represent a power which no people and no country on the globe could cope with.

Fancy for a moment that Germany has conquered England and reduced it to a German province, or that the Allies have succeeded in disrupting Germany into a southern realm with

Austria and into a northern one with Prussia. These structures would not be lasting. Germany would never be able to permanently protect Europe against an Asiatic advance and at the same time maintain its heritage of English world-power. Still less could Western Europe dispense with Germany, which forms a bulwark against Asia, or prevent the reunion of the Germans of the North and South.

In either case Europe would be the sufferer.

A maintenance of European power and civilization is, therefore, possible only by the union of the three leading powers. No other issue of the present war would result in a permanent adjustment. Any considerable shifting of the equilibrium of Europe would jeopardize its existence.

England, France, Germany, and Austria form the necessary framework of Europe. The other countries composing it are culturally and politically constrained to unite with them.

Russia, in this connection, occupies a peculiar position. That orthodox land, which has its roots in Byzantium, is a world in itself. Since Peter the Great it has approached nearer to Europe and drawn its culture from her. But the pith of its power lies in Asia. Its cultural development will create a new world, and a people that will be absolutely different from the nations of Europe. It lacks the traditions, too, which binds these together. Europe will, at any rate, have to be on its guard in the future against Russia's lust of Western empire.

England's vast colonial possessions do not concern Europe. The Emperor of India is not a European potentate. The adjustment between its European and its colonial interests will be a difficult matter for England. The roots of her power, however, lie in Europe. Should Europe be disrupted, the British Empire would be disrupted likewise.

France and Germany merge into each other geographically; they are dependent upon each other. Germany is the bulwark against Asia, France the gateway and protector on the sea.

There is, to be sure, a difference of language and culture in the three nations. Such differences, however, are not decisive. Switzerland is an example of the union, for the sake of the higher interests, of three groups differing in language and culture.

To resolve themselves into a higher community,—that is the task of the countries, which will be unable to maintain their existence, their nationality, their civilization, their economic standing, if they contend against one another! It is the duty of all the nations of Europe to-day to be absorbed in the great whole.

A shining example of individual sacrifice for higher ends was furnished by Prussia in 1866, when, after overpowering its old rival, it renounced a great Prussian Empire in favor of a united Germany. But for this magnanimous policy she would not now be in a position to face a world of enemies.

This devotion to great causes, which the future will demand of Europe, will have to be exercised by those powers, too, upon whom



the decision of the terms of peace shall rest.

Contentions within the limits of Europe must never again assume a significance which will cause a mutual rending of its peoples.—The awful war of 1914 must be the last one fought by the European powers among each other!

But will the result be a union, permeated as the nations now are by a mutual hatred, struck to the heart by the awful fate imposed upon them by the war? Will the nations and their rulers vividly realize the wisest course to pursue?

There will be many to doubt it.—But will not the profound longing for peace, after

the resumption of the activities of peace, of the working classes of all nations, the peasant, the laborer, the mechanic, the merchant, the scholar, the artist, compel the leaders of states to find the means of preventing the return of such a conflict under any circumstances?—That, too, may be doubted!

Perhaps the idea of a peace-agreement among the European nations is indeed a utopian dream.

In that case it will be incumbent upon every power that prescribes the terms of peace to obtain the most favorable terms possible for itself at the next adjustment.

Then:—*Vae victis!*

## THE BELGIUM OF TO-MORROW

A GREAT city is ravaged by fire. To contemporary vision the event is sheer disaster, but posterity will see it in another light. Where wood crumbled in ashes arises the enduring marble. London, for instance, was not the same London after the *Annus Mirabilis*; some splendid Gothic monuments were lacking, but so, also, were sundry pestiferous rats,—and the plague has never since visited English shores. Such is the law of compensation.

Senator H. La Fontaine, a well-known Belgian publicist, writes of "The Reconstruction of Belgium" in the *Contemporary Review*, not in the spirit of one making the best of a bad bargain, but rather enraptured with "the ideal for the realization of which so many victims are now making without reckoning the sacrifice of their youth." At the same time this patriot does not seek to minimize the calamity of the moment, nor ignore the practical necessities of the immediate future.

What must be done for "the reconstruction of Belgium and the raising up of the ruins, moral and material, under which she now lies gasping and starving"?

The repatriation of her exiles and the reconstruction of her towns, factories, monuments, is not the only task devolving upon her. She will have also to reconstruct her political and educational tools, and prepare herself for the high cultural mission it will be her duty to accomplish under the new circumstances in which the world will find itself. From her extreme suffering will come supreme wisdom.

In 1910, at the time of the last decennial census, Belgium had 7,423,784 inhabitants. The annual increase is about 75,000, so that at the outbreak of the war the population might be estimated at 7,750,000 souls. The army should com-

prise rather more than 250,000 men, including volunteers, of whom 60,000 are prisoners in Germany or interned in Holland. A million persons left the country at the time of the German invasion, but there can hardly now be more than 600,000 refugees beyond the frontiers in Holland, Great Britain, France, and Switzerland. The population now in Belgium must amount, therefore, to rather less than 7,000,000, of whom 2,500,000 have already become chargeable on public or private beneficiaries [*sic*].

When Belgium revives, what will be the state of mind of these various categories of citizens? Some will be profoundly depressed by the sufferings and privations they have gone through; others, in spite of their courage, will be destitute of all things and in a condition of undeserved misery; a great number will have become unaccustomed to any effort, or will be physically reduced. A large section of the population, which may be estimated at a third or two-fifths of the whole, will be in such a position as to run the risk of becoming abnormal, an easy prey to the worst suggestions.

The writer sees a sovereign remedy for these moral ills in the stimulation of "the legitimate hopes which Belgium may and should have of living a life of greater intensity, nobility, and beauty." Before unfolding his ideas as to what shape this prospective moral renaissance should assume, the writer takes stock of the country's material resources and needs.

It is difficult to calculate the number of dwellings reduced to ashes or in ruins. According to information received of the provinces of Luxembourg and Brabant, and adding to that the towns of Dinant, Monceau, Tamines, Termonde, Ypres, Dixmude, and Nieuport, we reckon already more than ten thousand houses destroyed or rendered uninhabitable. No precise information exists as to the number of churches demolished or damaged, or as to the factories and workshops, hospitals, stations, schools, mills, farms. The burning of the university library at Louvain, and the bom-

bardment of the Halles at Ypres, have specially caught public attention, but a number of buildings in other places have been subjected to terrible outrages.

However, in most places there can be no question of building towns *de novo*, because the old towns still stand. In 1910 Belgium contained 1,536,336 dwellings. Estimating the number destroyed during the war at 30,000, and bearing in mind that certain towns are totally, or almost totally, in ruins, the proportion of property destroyed in other places will probably be not more than 1 per cent.

We must also take account of the fact that the houses of the laborers and of the bourgeois classes are mostly of extremely simple architecture, and that it would be exceedingly difficult to induce their proprietors to modify the traditional form of their dwellings; this form is also conditioned by the materials available in the first instance; bricks and tiles in the Flemish plain, calcareous stone and slate in the mountain regions. The population is also very independent in character, and each man prefers to act according to his fancy on the bit of ground which belongs to him. . . .

A more important problem is that which envisages the reconstruction of places which have been entirely destroyed. For instance, should certain historical buildings be rebuilt, and the ancient framework, which used to constitute their value, be constructed around them? The question is specially urgent in the case of Ypres, and my reply is clearly,—yes. It will be remembered that a similar discussion took place on the subject of the Campanile of St. Mark's, Venice, but no one disputes now that it was right to rebuild it. The position is not quite the same with regard to Dixmude, Nieuport, Termonde, Aerschot, Louvain, and Lierre. These towns, in spite of their curious and picturesque aspect, had not the same historic or artistic value as Ypres, and their transformation into modern cities may be more easily imagined, if such is the desire of their inhabitants.

There will be an opportunity here for modern methods of town-planning, provided the reconstituted authorities are able to take action soon enough; i. e., before the inhabitants have proceeded too far with the work of reconstruction according to their individual notions.

Another more serious problem which lies before Belgium is the economic question. Not only is her industrial, and still more her agricultural, machinery seriously damaged, but all commercial relations have been paralyzed, and the outside markets have been entirely closed to a country whose international exchanges were per head of the population the highest in the world.

Industrial losses include the burning down of factories and the loss of machinery

carried away to Germany and Austria. Agriculture is, for the moment, almost completely ruined. Millions of domestic animals have been requisitioned. The demands of the invaders and the necessities of the population have resulted in the depletion of the reserves of grain ordinarily kept to insure regular sowings. Even with much aid from the outside world, it will be no easy task to restock the country with animal and vegetable commodities adapted to the soil and climate.

In consequence of the ruin of highways and railways, of railway rolling-stock and other vehicles, including automobiles, "the whole of the arterial network of the country will have its vivifying stream slowed down for months, and because of this situation we shall probably see a prolongation of the industrial and agricultural anemia from which the Belgian nation is suffering so cruelly at this moment."

Belgium will no doubt be able to realize the indemnity to which she has a right, but it is also possible that the vanquished will be depleted to such a point that their credit will no longer be negotiable, or negotiable only at a very high rate. . . . We consider that it is a case of emergency where a debt of honor is due from the whole of humanity. Belgium has really sacrificed herself to avert from the world the domination of an unscrupulous autocracy. The world has a moral obligation to her, and it is for the totality of the states to guarantee the loan which Belgium must contract.

Compensation in the shape of an increase of territory has been suggested, but the writer deprecates such a plan.

Last but not least, Belgium stands ready to confer new benefits upon the world, and incidentally to confirm her own moral regeneration, by becoming in fact what she has long been potentially,—the great center of internationalism. "Belgium must become the chosen land for the *entente cordiale* amongst the peoples." The first international congresses were held on her territory, and she has given birth to such undertakings as the Parliamentary Union and the Union des Associations Internationales, "which has as its object the coördination of efforts which tend to secure over the whole surface of the globe the coöperation of the citizens of all countries in all the departments of human activity." (The writer is one of the secretaries of this Union.)

What more fitting monument could be erected in memory of the great war, asks the Senator, than a world laboratory, on



Belgian soil, "where all those who labor for the progress of civilization may meet and agree together"?

It would be the international city, the cosmopolitan town, the world metropolis,—Geopolis.

## ITALY AND AUSTRIA

THE hesitation displayed by Italy in taking a decisive stand in the present war has been unfavorably criticized by partisans on both sides of the bitter conflict. However, all neutrals must recognize the difficult position in which the Italian Government is placed, and must admit that it is altogether justified in consulting the true interests of Italy above every other consideration.

The latent antagonism subsisting between Italy and Austria, in spite of the Triple Alliance, has its roots in the war of liberation from Austrian oppression that led to the establishment of the present Kingdom of Italy, but this bygone antagonism would already have been forgotten were it not that the Austrian Empire still holds sway over a large Italian population in the regions bordering on the Adriatic. To obtain a rectification of her boundaries in this direction, without having recourse to the terrible expedient of an armed conflict, has been Italy's aim, especially during the past few months, and until this prospect is definitely proved to be hopeless, her present attitude will probably be maintained, unless the operations of the Allies against Turkey should cause a change of policy.

It should be borne in mind that the complex structure of the Austrian Empire, with its many anomalies, is perhaps better understood by well-informed Italians than by other Europeans less in touch with Austria, and a proof of this may be found in a recent article by Signor Angelo Quintieri in *Nuova Antologia*. Although fully recognizing the theoretical justice of race-union as embodied in Pan-Slavism or Pan-Germanism, Signor Quintieri sees in a realization of the former a grave peril for the future of European civilization. Indeed, in this connection he expresses a much more favorable opinion of the composite Austrian Empire than we might expect from a patriotic Italian. Of this aspect of the political situation he says:

While I have no Austrian leanings, but rather favor Russia and am a great admirer of England, none the less, when treating of matters closely concerning my native land, I put aside my personal sympathies. It is unjust for Russia and England to blame Austria, a land which has shown much

respect for the rights of the various nationalities living together within the monarchy, and to overlook wilfully the fact that Austria has given official recognition to the different languages spoken in the land, and that she permits almost any reasonable affirmation of race not offending the justifiable susceptibilities of a rival race.

True it is that now and again prohibitive regulations are enacted which place limits upon any excessive propaganda, or oppose barriers to any infringement of the constitutional rights of the state, but we can scarcely deny that it is only the duty of the imperial government to repress separatist tendencies and to keep the peace between the various races, which dispute their respective spheres of influence step by step and inch by inch, and are constantly menacing one another, moved by an irresistible antipathy rarely interrupted and always reawakened.

As component parts the different races possess an importance much greater than they would enjoy as independent states, or if they were not under a tutelage which may, indeed, sometimes become annoying and oppressive, but which is an assurance of progress and peaceful development and is quite compatible with full enjoyment of the statutory political liberties. Therefore it is not easy to understand why these races should rise against a beneficial order of things, for which no better one could well be substituted.

In spite of the hatred toward Austria in which we have been nurtured, in spite of the struggles of our ancestors to overcome the obstacles opposed by Austria to our national independence, I dare to assert that should the Austrian Government be overthrown, it would be necessary to reconstitute this government, or at least to form, under some other name, a confederation embracing the various and diverse nationalities dwelling in the region bounded by the Adriatic, the Carpathians, and the Balkans, for these nationalities are too weak to profit by absolute independence, while being fully able to enjoy the benefits of autonomy under the hegemony of some strong state. Indeed, were it not for the inherent improbability of such a solution, I would indicate a revived Poland as the most appropriate choice for this part.

In conclusion, the writer notes the existence, long before the war, of an instinctive dislike in Russia of the resident Germans, notwithstanding the fact that the benefits derived by Russia from German civilization, science, and industry have been fully recognized. Indeed, this very fact has contributed to accentuate the antipathy, for the Russians, while forced to admit the intellectual superiority of the Germans, have resented this, regarding the undeniable influence exercised by German thought and German methods as a confession of their own inferiority.

# KARL BITTER, AMERICAN SCULPTOR

**K**ARL BITTER, the sculptor, whose untimely death, on April 10, was chronicled in last month's REVIEW, was in no sense a "hyphenated" American. A native of Austria, he came as a young man to the United States, and in the years of his tutelage his devotion to his art was hardly more intense than his whole-hearted acceptance of the principles of American democracy as he conceived them. A fine tribute to Bitter's Americanism is paid in the *Survey* of May 1, by Oswald Garrison Villard, who declares that there was no more loyal American than Bitter, no more devout believer in democratic institutions and their glorious future. Something of the sculptor's spirit as an interpreter of American history is reflected in his latest work, the "Jefferson" that was unveiled at the University of Virginia several days after Bitter's death.

It is to the Austrian military conscription system, according to Mr. Villard, that Bitter's migration to America was directly due. His three years' service in the Kaiser's uniform was begrudged because it deprived the young sculptor of the best period of his youth,—the formative period.

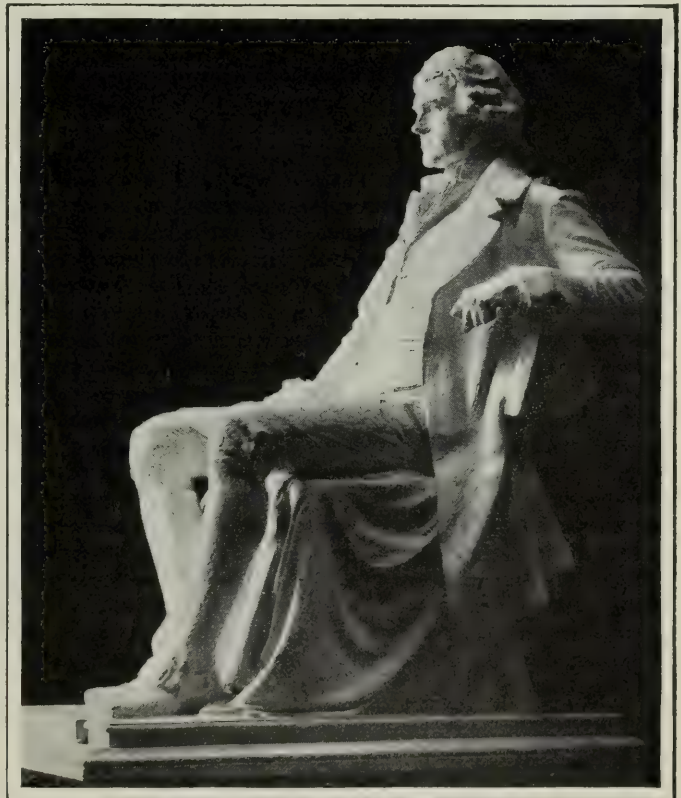
When Bitter first landed in America he had to work with his hands for a livelihood, but at twenty-one, through the bronze door of competition for Trinity Church, in New York, he achieved instant fame, and the still more valuable friendship of the veteran artist, William Morris Hunt. From that time Bitter's rise was steady and rapid. At forty he was chosen president of the National Sculptors' Society, and when he died he was in the very front rank of his art in this country.

While Mr. Villard admits that Bitter would have been an artist had he stayed in his native Austria, he declares that he never would have been so great an artist as he became here:

Like some of our Teuton political refugees, Carl Schurz and Abraham Jacobi, he reacted in a wonderful way to our democratic institutions. Native-born citizens, it often seems, come by the privileges of American life too easily to appreciate them to the fullest degree. At least, some of those who have sacrificed and suffered to obtain them value those blessings more highly than those to whom they come as a matter of course.

Of the former, Bitter was one. He was a born democrat for all that he was so aristocratic in bearing, and his nature was fineness personified. He was a democrat because he had full faith in the people. Free himself in thought, in speech, in religion, in his art, he naturally recognized more and more the right of others to be free,—with which came a profound sense of his responsibilities as a citizen,—and of the obligations of his talent. He recognized to the full his duties to his scholars and assistants, to his colleagues in the fine arts, to his city, and to the country of his adoption. He had, moreover, a complete belief in the art future of this democracy, and was as certain as anybody could be that the American people have a great rôle to play in the development of art.

Of this he was the more convinced as his opportunities drew him more and more to the



KARL BITTER'S "THOMAS JEFFERSON," UNVEILED AT THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA IN APRIL



middle-Western cities. His extraordinarily quick and searching perceptions, the deep study he gave to everything relating to a subject, made it easy for him to look below an undeveloped surface and see the promise of what lay beneath. Cleveland, Madison, and latterly Indianapolis, all made their profound impression upon him, and brought him fresh inspiration. Indeed, his hand, when tragically stayed, had already been set to a task which appealed mightily to him,—the development and beautification, with a fountain, of one of the greatest squares in Indianapolis, his purpose being to make it a center for child life.

The civic and the child ideal in this appealed deeply to him, for he never forgot the social or the educative values of his art. Like the true artist and big man he was, the thing that he always forgot to put forward was,—the artist himself. When the commission was given him for the Sigel and Schurz statues, he spent days and days walking about New York searching for sites, and in both cases chose himself those that were finally selected. Then he worked on his problem as every sculptor ought to but many a one does not,—with a complete feeling for the responsibility he assumed thereby to give the municipality something suited to its life and in accordance with the best conception of what its art policy should be, not only for the present but for the far distant future.

When Admiral Dewey returned from his victory at Manila Bay, Bitter was but thirty-one, and had been only eleven years in the

country, yet he was chosen to superintend the building of the Dewey Arch to commemorate the triumph of American arms in the East. This arch was regarded as one of the finest works of art of recent years, and the group which Bitter himself contributed, representing a naval gun-crew, vividly typified the spirit of the American sailor.

At three expositions, those held at Buffalo, at St. Louis, and at San Francisco, Bitter took complete charge of the sculpture. For the sculptural work at Buffalo, only \$30,000 had been provided, but after Bitter had met the directors and outlined to them what sculpture could do for their exposition, the appropriation was promptly raised to \$200,000.

The gain that has come to this country from Bitter's life alone, says Mr. Villard, ought to be a sufficient answer to those among us who say that the time has passed when this country should be the haven of refuge for such spirits as his—that we should put up the bars against all, who, like himself, would find their way to the clear, inspiring atmosphere of "the land of the free and the home of the brave."

## "WAR" AS A THEME FOR SCULPTURE

THE commonest complaint against art has been that it has nothing, or at best very little, to do with life,—particularly the life, thought, ideals, of the time that produces it. This is a narrow-minded species of faultfinding, of course. All art that is worthy the name is interpretation of life in terms of beauty, and beauty is always its own excuse for being. Yet it is true that hitherto the great bulk of art work produced in the United States has leaned too heavily on Old World traditions to be really representative of American life. Only the exceptional artist has had the courage or the breadth of vision to attempt the embodiment in his work of American ideals. But evidence is multiplying that this is a condition of the past, that American artists are more and more turning to American themes, and treating age-old themes with the fresh and youthful freedom of the American spirit.

A highly interesting and significant piece of evidence of this kind,—a remarkable example of the way in which artistic convention waits on and follows public opinion or

popular sentiment,—has just been witnessed in New York City, in a competitive exhibition of sculpture by young artists illustrative of the single theme of "War." This exhibition was held at the Reinhardt Galleries, No. 565 Fifth avenue, last month, under the auspices of the Friends of the Young Artists, a new organization backed by a group of public-spirited people, including the Hon. Elihu Root, Edwin H. Blashfield, Thomas Hastings, Mrs. H. P. Whitney, Mrs. Helen Foster Barnett, the Rev. John Wesley Hill, J. W. Alexander, William Ordway Partridge, Albert H. Pratt, I. Sanford Saltus, and others. With the kindly motive of helping the young artist at the outset of his difficult career, and particularly at this moment of great need in many cases, this new society began its beneficent activity by offering a series of a dozen prizes for sculptures on the subject of "War."

One hundred and twenty-three contestants entered the competition, and the group of their works making up the exhibition, taken as a whole, strikingly illustrated the

general sentiment of the Western World to-day on the devastating, horror-breeding, murderous sum of all crimes and villainies that is war. It was highly significant that less than half a dozen out of sixscore works shown represented Noble Courage, or Willing Sacrifice, or Martial Glory, or other heroic flamboyancies. To most of the young sculptors "War" suggested only ideas of horror, grief, tragedy, terror, despotism, inhumanity, devastation, and destruction. And they portrayed their conceptions of these ideas with frankness and ultra-modern realism in many cases, achieving thereby an undeniably powerful effect.

Treatment of the subject to which the exhibition was limited ranged from anecdotal groups, descriptive of the suffering of war's victims, to symbolical representations of "War" as a monster crushing or devouring humanity. One sculptor represented war as a man-brute dragging his victim (civilization) by the throat; another, as a gaunt woman suckling a puny and starveling child; another, as a vulture alighted on a wounded soldier; another, as a mailed giant crushing a youth under a wheel; another, as a stricken and riderless horse; and still another as a gigantic skeleton wielding the sword of destruction. For the most part, the figures shown were so many concentrations of tragedy or of grief or utter helplessness.

The like of such an exhibition never was seen before. And at the present time it could not have been possible in any other land but America. Fancy what an exhibition of war sculptures would mean in France, or Ger-



ADOLPHE RAMON'S CONCEPTION OF WAR AS SHOWN  
IN THE SCULPTURE COMPETITION HELD LAST MONTH  
IN NEW YORK

(Symbolizing the destruction of peace, commerce,  
and architecture)

many, or Russia! Whether this unique and striking exhibition of sculpture by young artists who have their reputations yet to make means the first step toward the permanent suppression of references to the glory and heroism of war and admiration for its leaders, in favor of the exposition of its tragedy and horror, it is of course too early to tell. But at any rate it is surprisingly significant of the great, all-pervading, universal thought of the American people to-day that war is the worst of crimes against God and man and man's civilization.

## SCRIABIN AND "COLOR MUSIC"

IT was a clever conceit of the witty Mr. Whistler's to call some of his paintings "symphonies," "harmonies," "nocturnes," and these musical titles were effective in a subtle way, though the paintings so named were always pictures. A few months ago Alexander Nikolaevich Scriabin, a Russian musician, born in Moscow in 1871, and known chiefly as a composer of elegant piano-forte pieces after the manner of Chopin, started that part of the world which is interested in the arts with a combination of sounds and colors in an amazing production that he called "Prometheus—A Poem of Fire." In this he attempted to effect an organic union of tonal music and "color music" or mobile color into an artistic whole, and so to operate

on the two senses of sight and hearing at the same instant.

At the initial performance of this work in Moscow the *clavier à lumière*, or "color piano," invented by Scriabin failed to work, or was not ready for use, and so the tonal part only was performed. This was given in Bremen also and in London, a year or so ago, again without the color effects. So the first complete performance to be given anywhere in the world in attempted accord with the composer's intentions took place in Carnegie Hall, New York, on March 20, last, at the hands of Mr. Modest Altschuler and his Russian Symphony Orchestra. For this performance a color organ, which he calls a "chromola," was devised and set up by Mr.





ALEXANDER N. SCRIBIN, THE RUSSIAN MUSICIAN,  
WHO DIED SUDDENLY AT MOSCOW, APRIL 26

Preston S. Millar, general manager of the Electrical Testing Laboratories. This instrument has a keyboard with fifteen keys. In operation each key when pressed down closes an electric circuit which lights an incandescent lamp of the desired color, and the color is diffused in a gauze screen. The intensity of the light is controlled by means of two pedals. The colors may be "played" singly and in all sorts of combinations of double-note and chord mixtures.

For the New York performance a screen was placed at the back of the platform behind and above the orchestra. The hall was darkened, the musicians having dark-lamps attached to their music racks. To the accompaniment of weird and unprecedented gurglings, surgings, and explosions of sound from an orchestra of a hundred men, the screen was animated by flowing and blending colors,—all the colors of the spectrum and many others not in the spectrum, ranging from pearl white or faintest blue through brilliant reds, yellows, greens, to olive browns and somber purples. The effect was nearest like that of a miniature *aurora borealis*, only that the colors within the rectangular frame did not form arcs or rays or any shapes whatsoever, but were wholly nebulous, without pattern or design.

A few weeks after this New York per-

formance Mr. Scriabin died at Moscow. Among contemporary musicians he had for several years been regarded as one of the most original figures. He had grown up in Moscow, having at an early age entered the Conservatoire, where he quickly developed marked talent as a pianist. At his graduation in 1892 he received the gold medal and began a tour of Europe. Later he accepted a professorship of piano music, but resigned in 1903 in order to devote himself to his advanced methods of composition.

Not alone because of this attempt to produce "color music," but also because it constitutes the most radical and audacious departure from all recognized methods and styles in tonal music, this "Poem of Fire" has caused more commotion in the musical world than any other orchestral work since Richard Strauss, breaking away from the tutelage of Brahms, began to astound with his gigantic tone-poems, nearly twenty years ago. And the musical critics particularly, the world around, have been set by the ears,—as they always are by anything in music that is really new and different.

So, in the second number of the new *Musical Quarterly*, just to hand and dated April, 1915, we find the place of honor given to an article on Scriabin and his theories written by John F. Runciman, a London critic, who has himself been called by one of the leading American musical critics "that singular compound of intellectual volatility and crassness," and who never lacks courage to voice his opinions. It seems that Mr. Scriabin visited England last year and, according to Mr. Runciman, talked "a great deal of fascinating moonshine about the relation of music to color and the connection between perfumes and music," and so Mr. Runciman entitles his article "Noises, Smells, and Colors." Although Scriabin repudiated the suggestion that he was a "futurist" in music, Mr. Runciman insists on classing him with Stravinsky, Schönberg, Marinetti, Pratella, and the few others who constitute the futurist "school." He says that Scriabin was a theosophist, "and he claims to have put his theosophy into his music."

He is not content to be a composer; he must needs be a prophet as well. Further, he is with the futurists in refusing to be content with the musician's medium of expression: besides music he must have colors, and in another work he means to offer us smells. With no scientific acquirements he has made or got possession of a color-piano, a *clavier à lumière*, and he claims to have written this "Prometheus" in such marvelous wise that two symphonies run concurrently

(like a convict's sentence,—only we, the listeners, are to undergo the double chastisement), the sound-symphony and the color-symphony. That, I will soon try to show, means he has written for an instrument which no one has learned to tune. . . . Had not other futurists asked us to accept and find an artistic joy in much more preposterous inventions we might call this futurism run mad. "Prometheus" has been heard without the accompaniment of the "color-symphony": I wonder what would happen if the color-symphony were tried without an orchestra.

In this connection it is interesting to remember that that eminent painter, Sir Hubert von Herkomer, a short time before he died, said of a "color organ" invented by Professor A. Wallace Rimington, of Queens College, London:

To sit at this instrument and improvise for half an hour while watching the ever varying combinations of color on the screen produced by the playing is not only an unspeakable delight, but of real health-giving effect on the sense of color.

But the attempted union of colors and sounds is what Mr. Runciman cannot abide. He thinks that Scriabin in his speculations about the relations of colors and tones "shows himself more than a little behind the times." He points out that much interrogating of blind people about the problem has established no relationship whatever between color and sound. He says:

If a means can be found of producing upon the brain, by color through intermediation of the eye, a precisely analogical effect to that which is produced by sounds through the medium of the ear; if these means can be registered and the action set down in terms of cold arithmetic, so that a *clavier à lumière* can be tuned as accurately as a piano,—then indeed it will be time to begin rhapsodising about color-symphonies; then, but not till then. But I fear the scientists are as yet far from this goal; I fear that when they get their lists of vibrations of, say, the different shades which may form the scale of Red, and begin the work of finding the correspondence of these with the vibrations that form the scale of G on an oboe and the same and other scales on other instruments,—I fear they will promptly find themselves landed in a quagmire of surds and decimals that recur to all eternity.

If the problem of Tones-Colors seems not only difficult, but impossible, of solution, what on earth are we to think about the problem Tones-Colors-Perfumes? Granted that a symphony consisted of these three elements, or rather, to use Scriabin's phrase, three symphonies running concurrently, one made up of combinations of sounds (or noises), another of combinations of colored lights, another of combinations of smells, is there the slightest ground for assuming that any combination of odors can make an appeal to the esthetic faculty in us? . . . The esthetic value of a smell,—if esthetic it can be called,—is purely arbitrary; and the messages sent through the nostril to the

brain, or the thoughts and emotions aroused in the brain by any one odor, are not the same in any two cases. If they were, or ever had been, music would never have been invented. . . .

Granted that Scriabin and Stravinsky are simply trying to do in an honest way what the great composers have done, enlarge the boundaries of their art, can we concede for a moment that by adding colors and smells to what they call music they have taken the right road? Have they not simply closely followed the example of the painters who will paint, and of the poets who will write, anything that occurs to them, provided only that it has not been used before? The smelling machine has not yet been invented; the color-organ cannot be tuned; yet here we have musicians in such haste to be hailed as great inventors that they will write for these engines,—and trust to luck!

Finally, insisting on the necessity of form for any art work, and insisting that "every stirring of the human soul, if it is expressed in music at all, must be expressed lyrically, in song; when music ceases to be song it ceases to be music," this writer concludes that

What Scriabin and Schönberg offer us is something that is not music, and is not in the proper sense of the word meant to be music. It may turn out to be better than music, but that is hardly conceivable so long as they are trying to make a kind of music (in the technical meaning of the word) which by a process of self-nullification gets rid of its own body.

Here beyond question Mr. Runciman's views are perfectly sane and sound. Certainly there is no "moonshine" about them. Yet, is full justice done by all this denunciation? In discussing the ideas of any innovator there is always the possibility of unintentional misrepresentation through complete misunderstanding. In the first issue of the *Musical Quarterly* (which was noticed in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for March) William Henry Hadow, dean of Worcester College, Oxford, and quite as eminent an authority as Mr. Runciman, said of Scriabin and his "Poem of Fire":

Scriabin has shown remarkable genius and a rapid and continuous advance. . . . "Prometheus" is a triumph of successful audacity. It is music as free as thought and as vigorous as life, which has won strength through discipline, and liberty through reverence for law. Among technical points may be noted the variety and flexibility of his rhythm, his gradual acceptance of the chromatic scale as the fulness and richness of his harmonization, and basis. . . . But these speak only of the grammar and vocabulary of his art, they are the dry bones upon which he has breathed the spirit of romance. Amid the younger composers of Europe there is none whose present achievement holds out greater promise for the future.



# THE HOPE FOR AMERICAN MUSIC

TO the current issue of the *Musical Quarterly*, Mr. Henry F. Gilbert, of Cambridge, Mass., himself a composer of pleasing and well-made music, contributes a sensible, thoughtful, and richly suggestive article on "The American Composer," which the hundreds of thousands of members of the National Federation of Music Clubs, and all others genuinely interested in the hope for American music, might profitably read, mark, and inwardly digest.

"In a truthful and honest consideration of the art of musical composition in America," says Mr. Gilbert, "one is compelled to admit that there are as yet no real American composers. That is, speaking in the sense in which we consider Beethoven, Wagner, or Strauss as German composers; Delibes, Massenet, or Saint-Saëns as French composers, and Verdi, Rossini, and Donizetti as Italian composers." And he proceeds to give several cogent reasons why this is so, why that indefinable especial characteristic, or "spiritual color," differentiating the music of old-world peoples is not yet to be found in the music made in America.

He thinks that possibly the greatest reason is that we have hardly as yet developed an American race; although we have developed a strong and distinctive American *spirit*. As compared with that of Europe it is the spirit of youth in contrast to the spirit of age. "We have hitched our wagon to a star, the star of youth which shall indeed eventually drag us out of the slough of vulgarity." But the whole truth demands the admission that we have the faults of youth as well as the virtues. Our literature has at times voiced the exultant life of America. "But when we turn our attention in an earnest and unprejudiced manner to our native musical culture we must confess that not only are we lacking in composers of equal distinction, vigor, and originality, but we must admit that such composers as we have fail for the most part to grasp or to express this new spirit." They still turn to Europe not only for technic but also for ideals of beauty.

Music the position of the native composer of music in America is peculiar. We now have much music, and great music. The art of music plays a large and important part among the present-day diversions of the American public, but it is in the nature of an imported toy and is not a significant part of the life of the people. "One always feels,"

says Mr. Gilbert, "that music by an American is not wanted, especially if it happens to be *American music*. It is merely tolerated with a sort of good-natured contempt." Orchestral compositions must be accepted by conductors whose training and point of view are entirely European. Likewise the great body of professional critics is educated exclusively to European standards of musical beauty. These facts are undoubtedly obstacles in the path of originality. So also, thinks Mr. Gilbert, are the numerous prize competitions, however well-intentioned by their munificent founders. "In America the operations of these prize competitions would seem to be one degree worse than anywhere else. Not only does the most academic composition usually get the prize, but the one which is the least American also, owing to the European training of the judges. Prize competitions in general certainly encourage activity, but their immediate effects tend to retard progress."

The attitude of the government is another drawback. Music, and indeed the fine arts in general, have no official recognition or governmental support and encouragement in this country. Mr. Gilbert says:

Our legislators, if they do not express open scorn at the idea of governmental patronage of the fine arts, consider the issue of no importance whatever. In fact, if we consider the indifference and inaction of the government in this matter we cannot take a very high rank as a civilized country. We are certainly true barbarians in this matter. Even Russia, a country which it is much the fashion to look down upon, is inestimably in advance of us in this particular. . . . It is perhaps a trite saying that "Art is not a business," but the truth of it cannot be emphasized too often, especially in this country. It needs to be fostered and substantially encouraged if it is to take root and grow among a people and in turn react upon them as a civilizer. The consciousness of the American people as a whole has not yet grasped this fact. Neither has the consciousness of the American government, which is representative of the people, yet appreciated the value and worth of culture as a civilizer.

While conditions in this respect are somewhat better than they were ten years ago, the American composer still has much difficulty in getting proper public performances of his works. Mr. Gilbert sees promise of betterment in this direction in the many annual festivals of music held in various parts of the country, to three of which he awards honorable mention as being likely effectively to stimulate the growth of native creative

musical art. These three are the annual festival of the Litchfield County Choral Union, held at Norfolk, Conn.; the MacDowell Memorial Colony with its yearly festival held at Peterborough, N. H., and the "High Jinks" of the Bohemian Club of San Francisco.

After examining a few of the prejudices against the American composer and his work, the writer continues:

Considering the lack of esthetic consciousness in the American people, the apathy of the government toward the fine arts, and the prejudices of various kinds against the serious-minded American composer, we are fain to give him considerable credit for his struggle against such overwhelming odds. During the last quarter of a century or so there may be observed a slight tendency on the part of our composers to kick over the traces of European tradition, and to treat American subjects, to use fragments of melody having an American origin as a basis for musical structure. Indian and negro tunes and rhythms, Spanish-American tunes, and even the familiar Foster songs have been made use of in this way. Many of these compositions are probably not of lasting art value. The high-water mark that has thus far been reached by this method of procedure is undoubtedly MacDowell's "Indian Suite." But these compositions taken as

a whole indicate a fine, healthy tendency on the part of the American composer, one which we should certainly congratulate ourselves upon. This is but a tendency as yet and the compositions arising therefrom can certainly not express the large and complete spirit of America. But it seems to indicate a dawning consciousness on the part of our composers of the difference in spirit between Europe and America. . . . The main point is that the first step toward an American music has actually been taken. Its subsequent arrival is merely a question of time. . . .

In the order of the development of the arts music usually comes last, and it is perhaps too early to look for a distinctive note in American music. Still I see here and there a gleam of something big and vital.

But it is the potentialities, the latent possibilities of American music, which arouse my most earnest enthusiasm. Here we are in America with a population composed of all European racial stocks, each having its own distinctive race consciousness, yet all bound together by a free, liberated, and on-rushing national spirit. When the amalgam is complete—shall there not arise eventually a strong and beautiful music in whose texture is woven all those various strands of race consciousness? For all these threads shall be here gathered together and harmoniously blended, and I, for one, look with great interest to the ultimate development of an art of music, which, while containing these many elements, shall yet be superior in expressive power to any of the single elements from which it has been built.

## THE NON-COMMERCIAL DRAMA

THE current New York theatrical season, the most unsuccessful from a business standpoint that can be recalled by the present generation of theater-goers, has still been notable for the presentation of several so-called non-commercial plays that have been greeted night after night by crowded houses. Apropos of this seeming paradox, Mr. Clayton Hamilton discusses, in the *Bookman* for May, the distinction between non-commercial and uncommercial plays:

A non-commercial play may be defined as a play that is produced more for the love of the production than for the love of the financial profit that may possibly result from the investment. All business may be divided into good business and bad business. Dismissing bad business as uncommercial, good business may further be subdivided into big business and small business. Small business may be defined as that which yields less than 10 per cent. on the investment; and big business may be defined as that in which a yield of less than 10 per cent. is regarded as a failure.

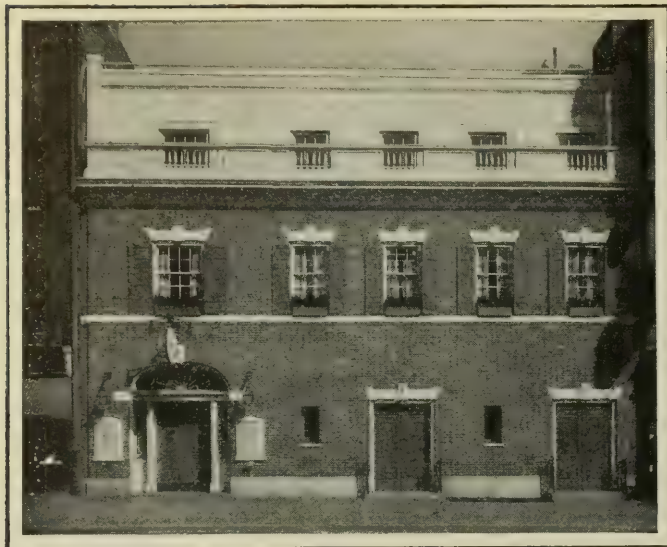
The trouble with the prevailing theater system in America to-day is not that this system is commercial; for, in any democratic country, it is not unreasonable to expect the public to defray the cost of the sort of drama that it wishes, and that,

therefore, it deserves. The trouble is, rather, that our theater system is devoted almost entirely to big business; and that, in ignoring the small profits of small business, it tends to exclude not only the uncommercial drama, but the non-commercial drama as well.

The theater system of this country has been organized by the score of men who control it as a "big business." In none of their productions can these men rest contented with a profit of less than 10 per cent. Any play that does not realize 10 per cent. is summarily discarded as a failure, and four failures out of every five productions must be paid for by the overwhelming profits of the fifth production. Thus plays that might earn a profit of \$200 a week are killed off for other plays (frequently less worthy) that may earn a profit of \$2000 per week.

It is reasonable to demand of the dramatist that he shall sufficiently appeal to the theater-going public to draw a yield of 10 per cent. on the investment required to produce his play; but it is not reasonable to demand that a yield in excess of this percentage shall be regarded as a condition precedent to the continuance of his production. Any project that demands a profit of more than 10 per cent. is not business, but





THE NEIGHBORHOOD PLAYHOUSE, A NEW HOME OF THE NON-COMMERCIAL DRAMA IN THE HEART OF NEW YORK'S EAST SIDE

gambling; and a gambling proposition is just as uncommercial as a non-commercial proposition.

Since there seems to be small hope that the power of the theater trust can be broken by governmental process, the only thing to do, according to Mr. Hamilton, is to prove by actual experiment that small business can still be done in our theaters "quite irrespective of the dictates of the less than twenty men who have decreed that in all our theater business there shall be no alternative between big business and no business at all."

While discarding the uncommercial drama,—that is to say, the sort of drama that cannot pay its way,—as not worth fighting for, we must fight for the existence of the non-commercial drama,—that is to say, the sort of drama that can earn a profit of from 5 to 10 per cent, but is incapable of earning more. Fortunately, it appears already that this fight is almost won. Several of the most signal successes of the current season must be classed as non-commercial. Many plays which were produced with no initial hope that they would do more than pay their way have yielded a sound return on the investment, at a time when the gambling projects of the promoters of big business have resulted only in disastrous losses.

Mr. Hamilton notes as the most encouraging sign of the turning of the tide the striking success of Mr. Granville Barker's season in New York. Several of the distinctive features of Mr. Barker's productions were pictured in the April REVIEW. All of these productions have achieved a remarkable commercial success. Mr. Hamilton states that the fund provided by the Stage Society and

by the founders of the New Theater to guarantee Mr. Barker against loss has not been drawn upon for a single penny. Although a possible weekly loss approximating \$3000 was discounted in advance, the gross receipts of the second week of the season amounted to more than \$12,000.

Mr. Hamilton also comments on the offerings of the Washington Square Players, an organization of amateurs who have banded themselves together "for the purpose of having a thoroughly good time in writing plays, acting them, producing them, designing and executing scenery and costumes, and attending to details of business matter."

No royalties are paid to authors and no salaries to actors. Hence it has been possible to establish the low price of fifty cents for admission to their productions at the Band-



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

SCENE FROM "TWO BLIND BEGGARS" AS PRESENTED BY THE WASHINGTON SQUARE PLAYERS AT THE BANDBOX THEATER, NEW YORK



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

PANTOMIME, "THE SHEPHERD IN THE DISTANCE," GIVEN BY THE WASHINGTON SQUARE PLAYERS

box Theater. At least two performances have been given weekly since February 19, and for a great part of the time four performances. Not a single seat has been vacant at any performance. Four or five one-act plays are produced in an evening at a very low cost. The production of the play "Interior," which Mr. Hamilton pronounces in all respects appropriate, cost less than \$50, "and the amateurs who were entrusted with

the parts afforded a performance that was beautiful and touching."

Another organization of amateurs in New York is the Neighborhood Players, which gives performances on Saturday and Sunday evenings in the Neighborhood Playhouse on Grand Street. This theater, says Mr. Hamilton, has the only modern system of lighting in any American theater. The players are associated with the Henry Street Settlement.

## THE PHYSIOLOGICAL IMPORTANCE OF INTERNAL GLANDS

ONE of the most important fields of modern research in physiology and medicine is that of the function on health and in disease of those glands which have an internal secretion. Among the chief of these vascular glands are the suprarenal capsules, the thyroid and parathyroid glands, the thymus, the hypophysis, the yellow body of the ovary, etc.

Generations of anatomists and physiologists have been profoundly puzzled to explain the uses of these glands. It is only within the last few decades, indeed, that their importance has begun to be realized. But ever since the researches of the famous

Dr. Brown-Séquard in 1889-91 their significance in health and in illness has been increasingly recognized and has attracted more and more the endeavors of skilled investigators such as Gley, Horsley, Abelous, Takamine, and others.

The science which deals with these glands is termed endocrinology,—a word formed from the Greek *endon*, within, *krinein*, to secrete, and *logos*, discourse. This science teaches that these glands play a rôle of the first importance in governing metabolic operations and maintaining the necessary equilibrium among the various forces that operate in a living organism, such as growth, assim-



lation, digestion, etc. Injuries or disease affecting them result in grave disturbances in the balance of bodily functions. On the other hand, many such disturbances of health are now treated by extracts of similar glands found in animals.

The growing recognition of the importance of this branch of medicine has roused widespread interest in it in lay minds as well as among doctors. We are glad to find a timely article on the subject in a recent number of the monthly supplement issued by the French encyclopedia *Larousse* (Paris) whose appearance the great war is fortunately not preventing. The author observes that these glands constitute the essential agents of correlation of the energies operant in the body, and he continues as follows:

It is thanks to these that the functions and the organs preserve their reciprocal harmony and react synergistically, in such manner that their active principles, entering the general circulation, excite or inhibit, either directly by chemical action or indirectly by the nervous system, the functions indispensable to the normal life of the individual.

Thus the thyroid extracts have properties which are at once anti-toxic and tropic, but the first seem to belong to the parathyroids, the second to the thyroid: the removal of the thyroid produces, in fact, among the young, insufficient ossification, arrest of development, and dwarfism; the removal

of the parathyroids produces nervous affections, comparable to those caused by poisonings; and, finally, the removal of the entire thyroidal apparatus produces *myxædema*, which proves the double action of the thyroidal secretion.

In the same way the suprarenal capsules (one of whose active principles is adrenalin) have an anti-toxic and neutralizing action with regard to the injurious substances which result from muscular contraction; in consequence, their removal is followed by pigmentation of the skin (the bronzing of Addison's Disease), by asthenia, and by muscular paralysis. But a very remarkable circumstance is that the hypertensive suprarenal secretion is antagonistic to the hypotensive thyroidal secretion. It results from this that the suppression of the one occasions affections due to the non-compensation of the other, which proves the necessity of their synergetic influence.

Dr. Laumonier states that these facts have been made evident by the experience of surgeons and clinicians controlled by experimental physiology. It is therefore deduced with reason that many maladies whose cause has been hitherto undiscovered result from some failure of one or more of the endocrinal secretions. He concludes as follows:

Hence the greater and greater part taken in the clinic by the study of and research into these alterations, and the more and more extended and successful the employment in therapeutics of glandular extracts.

## THE WORLD'S MISSIONARY MAGAZINES

ONE of the most interesting articles among the eleven leading contributions to the *Moslem World* for April (Cairo, London, New York) is by Leyden's Mohammedan specialist, Snouck Hurgronje. The Islamic faith is facing problems due to modern inventions of various sorts, chief among which, from a religious viewpoint, is the "wonder box" of Edison. Its chief sins calling for grave discussion are its repetition of Koranic quotations, especially its "Our Father," *Fatiha*, and songs of "strange women,"—those who are not the listener's wife or a relative with whom conversation is allowed. Hurgronje quotes from many eminent authorities, most of whom regard it either as sacrilege to listen to what Allah Himself would regard as not conforming to "an Arabic Koran without crookedness," or as being permissible if the selection is decent and does not excite sexual temptation. As for the "strange woman's" song, it may be heard unless it awakens lust. An ultra-liberal Singapore authority holds that the

phonographed Koran is to be regarded with the same respect and awe as the written Koran and even asserts that the Call to Prayer may be given from a phonographic record. The famous Sayyid Othman, however, objects to both propositions on the ground that "the most evil things are those that are newly invented. Every new invention is heresy, every heresy is error, and every heresy leads to hell-fire."

One of the most valuable sources of information concerning Japanese publications of a moral and religious character is found in the "Department of the Christian Literature Society of Japan," regularly appearing in the *Japan Evangelist* (Tokio). The March issue contains a lengthy summary of a recent discussion of the essence of Tenrikyo,—"Heavenly reason doctrine." This sect owes its origin to Omiki, born in 1798, and proclaiming her new faith forty years later. The writer claims that a sect that has gained more than three and a half million adherents in the past thirty years and is at present

vigorously propagated in all parts of Japan, as well as in England, America and the South Seas, deserves notice. Its polytheism, —more strictly deka-theism,—is really mono-theism plus ten virtues; its crude hymns are easily remembered and explained; its evangelists have experienced its power in physical healing; it breaks but little with the past; the power of "the Parent" is present and helps to endure persecution; the believer's moral character improves, he becomes pitiful and benevolent, and factory employers endorse it because of its beneficent effects upon their workers. Tenrikyo is not to be despised, but it lacks requisite breadth for a universal religion. Christian preachers frequently embody Omiki's ideas in their sermons.

The growing self-consciousness of the Indian Church is illustrated by a paper in the *Harvest Field* (Mysore City) by Paul Appaswami, vice-principal of the Madras Law College, written in flawless English. In order that the indigenous church may survive after missionaries withdraw, he holds that it should be able to think for itself and evolve its own hymnology and its devotional and controversial literature. Further, it should be able to train its own ministry and other servants, be self-supporting and self-governing, set its mark upon the nation through its social and public activities, and be trained as an aggressive and effective propagandist. Until that ideal time arrives, the missionary should not do for Indians what they can do for themselves, nor furnish funds for supporting the church, nor should he try to transform converts according to approved forms of the Occident. He ought to labor for a higher standard for the people, impart to them missionary zeal, find time from administrative tasks to know Indians at their best, and use their latent or patent talents. In a word, foreign missionaries cannot single-handed evangelize India, but must create a complete Indian Church able to think for itself, train, finance and administer itself, handle all its problems and extend its domain.

Despite the war's interference with an international corps of contributors, the April issue of the *International Review of Missions* (Edinburgh) is possibly the best in its more than three years' history. Maurice Evans puts the gist of his remarkable volume, "Black and White in Southeast Africa," into an article of almost the same title,—a vivid and true portrayal of color problems facing the Union of South Africa far more serious than our negro question. Secretary

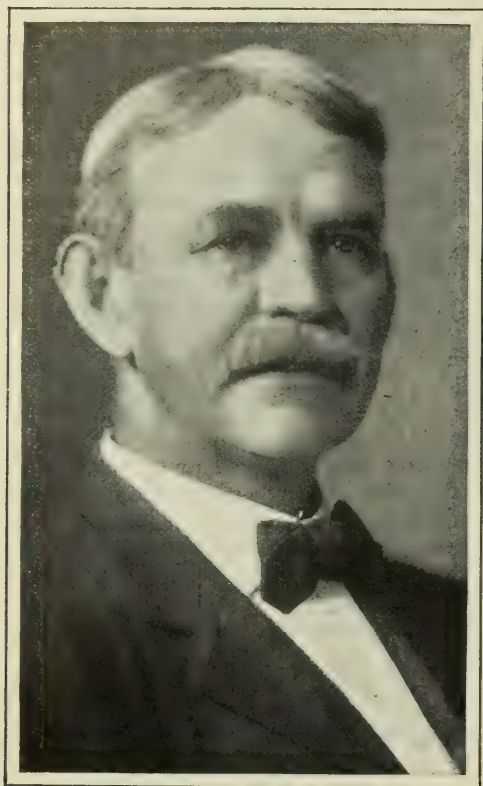
Ritson embodies the results of an extensive inquiry into the Christian literature of mission fields, undertaken by an Edinburgh Conference sub-committee during the past three years, in three brief conclusions after a luminous survey of conditions. Treasurer Day of the American Presbyterian Board presents important aspects of the financial administration of missionary societies. The second of a series upon vital forces of Southern Buddhism in relation to the Gospel is by Principal Purser, of Rangoon. Professor Hogg, of Madras Christian College, has a strong message of forgiveness and of uncrushable hope derived from the Lord's Prayer in his "Missionary Intercession and the Crisis." The remaining leading articles are by Secretary Hodgkin upon self-support in the mission field, by Professor Beach upon the Negro Christian Conference held in Atlanta last year, and an anonymous but very illuminating survey of the work of the German, French, Swiss, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish and Finnish Missions as they were before the war. Its annotated bibliography contains 159 entries in addition to thirty-two more extended reviews and notes.

*The East and the West* for April (London) reports progress and development in Persia, though Bishop Stileman apologizes for the restricted sense in which the words must be used. Greater religious liberty, advance in education, readier access to Moslems, Jews and Oriental Christians, and a change of policy from seeking to win Moslems through work for Jews, Nestorians and Assyrian Christians to direct labor for them, are some of the items. Donald Fraser, of Nyasaland, tells of devolution among negroes won to the faith without adequate foster care. Two war articles by Dr. Donaldson, "Foreign Missions and the War," and by Mr. Skipton, "Christianity in India after the War," are respectively statistical and factual and prophetic. Mr. Dean, of the same society as Mr. Fraser, treats the same general subject as the latter from a more optimistic viewpoint. Rev. G. Hibbert-Ware has seen mission work in both north and south India, and in his account of missionary policy in the Telugu Country, he gives a comprehensive survey of what he found there. As an Anglican he somewhat excusably omits all reference to the remarkable work of dissenting Americans. The most interesting article is by Dr. McGillivray, of Shanghai, upon missionaries and newspapers in China and Japan, while Mr. Ealand writes suggestively upon religious education in India.



# THE NEW BOOKS

## THE POWER TO MAKE TREATIES



HENRY ST. GEORGE TUCKER

(Author of a new work on the limitations of the treaty-making power)

MR. HENRY ST. GEORGE TUCKER has given us one of those rare books<sup>1</sup> which serves the double purpose of a treatise in the broad field of American government, and a necessary professional work of reference for the constitutional lawyer. In this careful and studious volume the effort is made to answer the question, Under what conditions and restraints is the power to make treaties with other nations exercised on behalf of the people of the United States?

The Constitution assigns the treaty-making power to the President, who must act by and with the consent of the Senate. The States are barred from making any treaties with foreign countries. It has been held by eminent authors, in their interpretation of our national system, that the treaty-making power is inherent in sovereignty,

and that the scope of its exercise is practically unlimited, although the manner and method are set forth in the clauses of the Constitution which give to the President the power to initiate a treaty, while requiring ratification at the hands of the Senate by a two-thirds vote of those present.

Mr. Tucker, however, proceeds by logic, analysis, and illustration to show that the treaty-making power cannot be superior to the Constitution itself, and that the President and Senate have no authority to make treaties which in their operation would affect the country like a Constitutional change. Thus he holds that it could not be permissible under a treaty to give aliens in the United States rights and powers which under the Constitution itself our own citizens do not enjoy.

Furthermore, he sets forth the doctrine that the power to legislate was conferred upon Congress by the same instrument which locates the treaty-making power. The President and Senate, therefore, in his view, have no authority to enter into agreements with foreign nations that work in such a way as to have the effect of domestic legislation. This view has been accepted as regards treaties which modify the tariff and revenue laws; so that it has become the practise, when a reciprocity or tariff treaty is made with a foreign power, to pass a bill through the House of Representatives before such treaty can have effect.

Mr. Tucker proceeds, however, to a more difficult and more controverted point when he takes up the relation of the treaty-making power to the States themselves and their spheres of reserved sovereignty. To put the point not in his way but in our own, he seems to hold that the right of a State to do a particular thing cannot be taken away from it by an exercise on the part of the President and Senate of their power to make treaties with foreign countries. He illustrates his views by reference to the dispute with Japan over California's attitude regarding separate schools for Asiatic children, and land-holding by aliens of certain races. He controverts the position taken by Mr. Root as Secretary of State, in regard to California's discriminations among aliens of diverse nationalities.

To sum up, Mr. Tucker would hold that the treaty-making power may properly deal with such matters as belong to the federal government, modified by the need of guarding against invasion of the power of Congress to legislate. He would hold that the treaty-making power does not extend to those matters which belong to the reserved sphere of action of particular States. The book derives reference value from its full citation of cases involving the treaty-making power that have been passed upon by the courts. The history of the conflicting views of judges, statesmen, and commentators is fairly presented. Doubtless the position of the Government regarding the exercise of the treaty power has not been wholly consistent, whether in theory or in practise. But Mr. Tucker's book will contribute much towards future

<sup>1</sup>Limitations on the Treaty-Making Power under the Constitution of the United States. By Henry St. George Tucker. Little, Brown & Co. 444 pages. \$5.

clarity of discussion, and will doubtless promote greater care and wisdom, henceforth, both in the phrasing of treaties and in their interpretation. Mr. Tucker has been a president of the American Bar Association, a dean of law schools in Virginia and Washington, D. C., and was for several

terms a member of Congress. He comes of a famous family of constitutional lawyers, and his father, the Hon. John Randolph Tucker, was long the chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the House and one of our greatest authorities on the Constitution.

## PHILOSOPHY AND LETTERS

HOW many Americans who express dissatisfaction with the fruit of the tree of American nationalism are fully competent to judge the tree and its fruits from an intimate knowledge of the soil that has nourished its roots? To give this knowledge, to advance intelligent citizenship, and to stimulate the desire for historical perspective in our colleges, Mr. Woodbridge Riley, Professor of Philosophy at Vassar College, has prepared a "Study of American Thought"<sup>1</sup> that embraces our original thinkers and our speculative philosophy from the Puritan Fathers to John Dewey and William James, or from Puritanism to Pragmatism. Ebullitions of American thought that we are prone to forget are restated, also the contents of curious documents,—to instance the rise of free thought in Colonial colleges and Benjamin Franklin's screed of "First Principles" (which he afterwards said was an "erratum" in the book of his life). "Notes on the New Realism" will prove especially helpful to students. This New Realism Professor Riley defines as a healthy objectivism that reveals "outward reality" as "far richer than inward meditation." Altogether this book is an excellent, condensed, and simplified history of philosophical thought in America and deserves sincere praise.

Mr. Chauncey Brewster Tinker writes a book of chapters on the interrelations of literature and society in the Age of Johnson,—*"The Salon And English Letters."*<sup>2</sup> The very word "Salon" conjures up a procession of those bygone mistresses of wit and manners who held their courts in France and England in the later eighteenth century. There were Julie de Lespinasse, the protégée of the blind Madame deffand; Madame Geoffrin, Madame Necker, and the notorious Madame de Tencin. In England, Mrs. Montagu, Mrs. Phelps, Mrs. Thrale; the aged "fairly crone," Mrs. Vesey, and a host of others who aspired to leadership. This sprightly book re-creates these personages for us and introduces us to their salons where Hume, Walpole, Lord Bolingbroke, Garrick, Gibbon, Samuel Johnson, and the rest of the brilliant crew held forth. The author deals with the borderland where literature and society meet, presumably, he writes, "to their mutual advantage," and to the result certainly of "the improved artistry of three or four types of writing," anecdotal writing, intimate biography and letter-writing, and naturally to certain "minor forms of literature,—epistles, epigrams, extempore verses, thoughts, maxims, *bon mots*, portraits, and *éloges*."

Allene Gregory gives us a fine monograph on "The French Revolution and the English Novel,"<sup>3</sup> a work that shows the interrelation of that divi-

sion of fiction with the political idealism of the French Revolution. He takes the field of the Revolutionary novelist with the idea of paralleling Dr. Hancock's book, "The French Revolution and the English Poets," and of furnishing more detail than Professor Dowden's general treatment offers. He considers naturally the background of events and ideas and leads on to Thomas Holcroft, William Godwin, the young Shelley, Robert Bage, the typical lady novelist, Mary Wollstonecraft, and to the other forms of literature affected by the struggle between classes. The appendix gives a list of plays that show tendencies influenced by the French Revolution. Moving beneath this mass of most interesting material, one observes a secondary theme, the inevitable suggestion to the novelist of to-day. If you aspire to write fiction, study the social order of the day, find where reforms are needed, observe tendencies, pillory the faults not of individuals but of nations,—of the world. The duty of the novelist is to point the way to set the social house in order, not to adorn a pleasant tale with mere verbiage. Mr. Gregory's study is valuable for its insight, taste, balance, clarity, and for its emphasis upon the necessity for faith in social idealism.

Edwin E. Slosson has prepared a volume, "Major Prophets of To-Day,"<sup>4</sup> that gives the busy man and woman all that is useful to know about the lives and work of Maurice Maeterlinck, Henri Bergson, Raymond Poincaré, Elie Metchnikoff, Wilhelm Ostwald, and Ernst Haeckel. It is a bright and breezy work excellently planned to meet the needs of the average reader.

The Art and Craft of Letters Series<sup>5</sup> present four brilliantly written little books that serve to introduce readers to certain fields of literature. They are: "History," by R. H. Gretton; "Satire," by Gilbert Cannan; "The Epic," by Lascelles Abercrombie; and "Comedy," by John Palmer. They are published in uniform edition of gray boards.

"Rabindranath Tagore, the Man and His Poetry,"<sup>6</sup> by Basanta Koomar Roy, presents a sympathetic, intimate impression of the poet's childhood, education, and activities. Mr. Roy's personal acquaintance with Tagore and his ability to make his own translations from the Bengali give an unexpected variety and interest to the work. Mr. Roy is the author of articles on Tagore which have appeared in leading magazines.

An excellent life of Rabindranath Tagore,<sup>7</sup> by Ernest Rhys, answers all questions that would

<sup>1</sup> American Thought. By Woodbridge Riley. Holt. 272 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>2</sup> The Salon and English Letters. By Chauncey Brewster Tinker. Macmillan. 290 pp. \$2.35.

<sup>3</sup> The French Revolution and the English Novel. By Allene Gregory. Putnam. 337 pp. \$1.75.

<sup>4</sup> Major Prophets of To-Day. By Edwin E. Slosson. Little, Brown, 299 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>5</sup> The Art and Craft of Letters Series. Doran. Single vols., 40 cents.

<sup>6</sup> Rabindranath Tagore, the Man and His Poetry. By Basanta Koomar Roy. Dodd, Mead. 223 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>7</sup> Rabindranath Tagore. By Ernest Rhys. Macmillan. 157 pp., ill. \$1.



naturally arise upon reading the poet's writings. Frequent quotations amplify the text, and excellent illustrations add to the interest of this adequate biography of the greatest literary genius of modern India.

The eleventh volume of the "Cambridge History of English Literature"<sup>1</sup> presents the period of

the French Revolution. Studies of Edmund Burke, Cowper, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, and Blake are included in this rich composite of literary history. Professor George Saintsbury has written three chapters; H. G. Aldis gives an interesting account of book production and distribution, and F. J. Harvey Darton contributes a chapter on "Children's Books."

## POETRY, AMERICAN AND FOREIGN



EDGAR LEE MASTERS

(The Chicago lawyer who has written "The Spoon River Anthology")

MR. EDGAR LEE MASTERS' "Spoon River Anthology"<sup>2</sup> first appeared in serial form in William Marion Reedy's *St. Louis Mirror*, beginning May 29th, 1914. There are 220 sketches and an epic fragment. The sketches present the various types of people that one might find in any small community of the Middle West. They are written partly in the first person, and often seem the reluctant testimony forced from the lips of the newly dead,—the farmers and the villagers,—who, as Mr. Masters writes, are "all,—all sleeping on the hill." It is as if the young and the old, the fair and the unlovely, the wise and the foolish, suddenly rose from their graves to chant in verse of Homeric dignity and simplicity, the loves, the friendships, the sorrows, the shame, and the secret hopes of their narrow lives. There is humor in these sketches, but it is almost submerged by a sullen insistence on the inevitability of sorrow.

Between characterization and sheer poesy, the "Anthology" sustains a delicate balance that shifts as the material to be presented varies. The carping critic might think the "Anthology" too long, or aver that Mr. Masters' voice occasionally animates his puppets far too much for the plausibility of his characterization, but these are minor flaws that are scarcely noticeable in this highly successful and unique addition to American poetry.

These people of the Spoon River country are totally different from the types presented in Robert Frost's "North of Boston." They are of mixed stock, transitional types,—not the lingering scions of an old pure-blooded race. Their idealism and their morals are largely pragmatical. Here and there one infers the sturdy kindliness of their hearts, and, in an occasional poem, the essence of all their hours of tenderness,—hours that break in monotony and end in futility,—rises from the poetry as perfume from a rose jar.

Through these lines, Anne Rutledge, Lincoln's sweetheart, speaks:

"Out of me unworthy and unknown  
The vibrations of deathless music;  
'With malice toward none, with charity for all.'  
Out of me the forgiveness of millions toward  
millions,  
And the beneficent face of a nation  
Shining with justice and truth.  
I am Anne Rutledge who sleep 'neath these weeds,  
Beloved in life of Abraham Lincoln,  
Wedded to him, not through union,  
But through separation.  
Bloom forever, O Republic,  
From the dust of my bosom."

The fragment of an epic that ends the "Anthology" and binds the loose threads into a connected narrative is supposedly written by one of the characters, Jonathan Swift Somers, who, according to Mr. Masters, "died a misanthrope through much study and penance," and left this epic fragment.

Mr. Masters is an able practising lawyer. He was born in Garnett, Kansas, but spent his boyhood in the "Lincoln country" of Illinois, which is the "Spoon River country" of the "Anthology." For a time he lived at Petersburg, two miles from New Salem, where Lincoln lived and kept a store. He studied at Knox College and has done newspaper work and published several books: "A Book of Verses," "Maximilian," a drama in blank verse; "The New Star Chamber and other Essays," "Blood of the Prophets," "Althea," a play; "The Trifler," a play, and also articles contributed to magazines on political and constitutional subjects. He is of English stock on both sides; his father was a descendant of Virginia all-English stock, his mother, the daughter of a Methodist minister of New Hampshire.

<sup>1</sup> Cambridge History of English Literature. Ed. by A. W. Ward and A. R. Waller. Putnam. 573 pp. \$2.50.

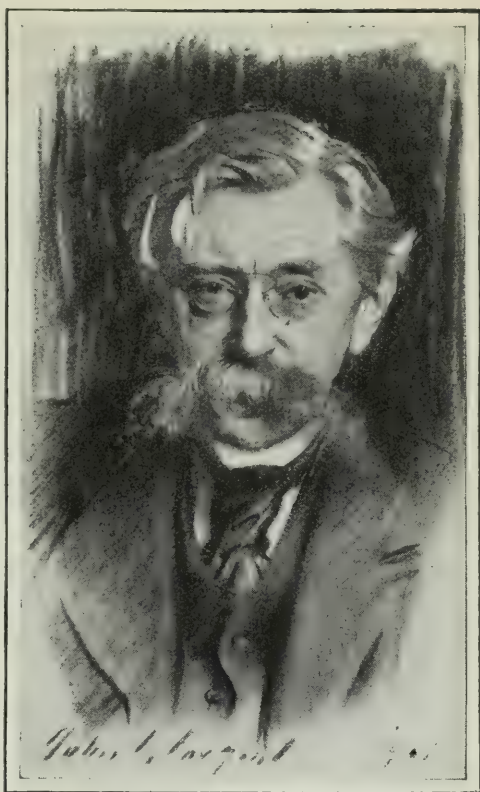
<sup>2</sup> The Spoon River Anthology. By Edgar Lee Masters. Macmillan. 248 pp. \$1.25.

The devastation of Belgium has brought about the awakening of an active interest in Belgian art and Belgian literature in this country. Émile Verhaeren, one of the group of brilliant writers who represent "Young Belgium," has burst upon us with his impassioned poetry through which we perceive the very soul of this desolated land.<sup>1</sup> Verhaeren is a poet of Nature and of humanity; he finds the "supreme beauty" in man, and uses Nature as a background on which to paint his "higher vision,"—the progress of man toward the ideal life. Technically, he is a symbolist and an apostle of *vers libre*. A volume of selected poems, translated into English by Alma Strettell, includes nine poems from "Les Villages Illusoires"; four from "Les Heures Claires"; three from "Les Apparatus dans mes Chemins," and three from "La Multiple Splendeur." These translations are fairly successful in transferring the delicate imagery in combination with power and depth of thought, from the illusive French of Verhaeren into English verse. There will always be differences of opinion in regard to any English rendering of the iridescent poetry of the gifted Belgian. To disturb his subtle adjustment of word-values is practically to create a new and different poem. "Snow," "The Fishermen," and "Glory of the Heavens," are perhaps the most successful of these translations.

"The Shoes of Happiness,"<sup>2</sup> Edwin Markham's first book of verse since "Lincoln and Other Poems," which appeared over ten years ago, has made a record for public demand at the New York Public Library. The title poem is a pleasing allegory of the Orient; the rest of the collection short, graceful lyrics which embody all the noble imagery and idyllic fancy that gives Mr. Markham's poetry its well-deserved popularity. "The Norns," and "At Friends with Life," reveal his lyric gift at floodtide.

Mr. William Rose Benet is the comet that flashes across the firmament of contemporary American poetry. His latest book, "The Falconer of God,"<sup>3</sup> has the daring, the nobility, the wide range and insolent abundance of true poetic genius. "The Falconer" is the marauding desire of youth that brings back, after all its fine burst of aspiration, but a dead quarry.

Mr. Brian Hooker, the author of "Koenigskinder," "Lobetanz," "Fairyländ," and joint author with Horatio Parker of the \$10,000 prize opera "Mona," gives us a first volume of verse that more than fulfills the rich promise of his occasional published poems.<sup>4</sup> As in the operatic work, his particular country of poesy is the "Land of Faery." He weaves philosophy and high questing after truth into melodious singing that echoes with faint suggestion, "La Belle Dame Sans Merci," of John Keats; and he sees clearly that the child's world is the real world, that we must take poetry with the simplicity of children, if we would not lose a measure of its precious-



A NEW PORTRAIT OF ÉMILE VERHAEREN,  
THE BELGIAN POET  
(Drawn by John S. Sargent)

ness. In the closing poem of the book, "Morven and the Grail," the poet voices his vision of the soul's reward:

"Children of earth, dream on  
Beyond your heaven, and dare  
Choose your own gold wherewith ye shall be  
crowned;  
Seeing He also dreams whose dream ye are,  
Nor will endure to bound  
That vision by the sweep of any nearer star  
Than ye have found most fair.  
Therefore from faith to faith, from goal to goal  
Unfurl the sunward pathway of the soul."

"Resurgam,"<sup>5</sup> a slender book of verses, by R. Howard Thomson, contains original thinking, fresh themes, and real poetry. The lyrics show imaginative power, and the longer poems have dignity and grace.

Other volumes of excellent verse include "Panama," by Stephen Phillips; "Poems," by Clinton Scollard; "The Sun Thief" by Rhys Carpenter (Oxford University Press); "Collected Plays and Poems," by Cale Young Rice (Doubleday); "Hernando De Soto," by Walter Malone (Putnam), and "Jocelyn," by Charles W. Brackett (Badger).

<sup>1</sup> Poems of Émile Verhaeren. Translated by Alma Strettell. John Lane. 92 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> The Shoes of Happiness and Other Poems. By Edwin Markham. Doubleday. 192 pp. \$1.20.

<sup>3</sup> The Falconer of God and Other Poems. By William Rose Benet. Yale University Press. 122 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> Poems. By Brian Hooker. Yale University Press. 146 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> Resurgam. By R. Howard Thomson. Philadelphia: William M. Bains. 36 pp.



## "THE NEW POETRY SERIES"

THE Imagist Poets might truthfully be called the Eleatics of Poetry. Their manifesto given in the preface of a new Imagist anthology has much in common with the philosophic doctrine of the Eleatic school of philosophy which flourished in Greece at the end of the 6th century B. C., and which declared pure Being to be alone existent as reality. For the Imagists, poetry exists in artistic unity,—as Truth to be rediscovered by each poet apart from technical limitations and precedents of form. They make movement an illusion in their work, for while their poems cover a radius of intellectual and emotional space, they are as much at rest as the arrow of Zeno,—a poised succession of hard, clear images of Truth projected against the background of the illusive appearances of life.

In March, 1914, an anthology of verse appeared, entitled "Des Imagistes." It contained selections from the work of a group of young poets who wished to protest against any bondage to form in poetic craftsmanship. They were misunderstood, as they neglected to explain their endeavor in a suitable preface. During the past year certain differences of opinion have arisen in the Imagist camp, and this for 1915 represents only certain of the group who have progressed along identical lines, and a different arrangement has been followed as to publication, that of permitting each contributor to represent himself by the unpublished work that he considered to be his best. Hence this collection has a new title, "Some Imagist Poets."<sup>1</sup> The content includes the Imagist poems of Richard Aldington, "H. D.," John Gould Fletcher, F. S. Flint, D. H. Lawrence, and Amy Lowell.

Their artistic aim is to present a clear image, to insist on the artistic value of modern life, to show that concentration is the essence of poetry, to create new rhythms, and to fight for absolute liberty as to form and the choice of a subject. The poetic unit of the Imagists is the rhythmic foot. This may be a phrase, a line, or lines that represent a single breath; and the governing law of the rhythmic foot is the emotional insistence of the idea plus the subtle word values of the English tongue. Each word has a certain emotional

value that must be weighed, or is involuntarily taken account of in the combinations of words that are sought by the Imagists.

It will readily be seen that this new freedom imposes more severe adherence to Art than the recognized verse forms we have used so long. A poet who might write a beautiful sonnet, with a certain dependence upon the upholding structure of the artificial form, will often have difficulty in freeing his art with the same facility when he usurps the freedom to originate and initiate his own rhythms and cadences. The progenitors of the Imagists are the Greek Melic poets, and in the 19th century, the French Parnassians, Fantaisistes, Symbolists, and the Whitmanites. Excellent studies on the subject have been written by Andre Spire, Charles Vildrac, Georges Duhamel, Remy de Gourmont, Gustav Kahn, Henri Gheon, and Robert de Souza.

So much briefly for the Imagist poetry. Those who read it for the first time will miss the end-rhymes and the absence of the kind of music in poetry to which they are accustomed. The Imagists will have none of the primitive "stamping of feet, clapping of hands, pounding of drums" versification. Perhaps their final evolution will bring them to the Shakespearian method,—the use of rhyme for formal decoration.

"Irradiations: Sand and Spray,"<sup>2</sup> by John Gould Fletcher, is published in uniform edition with the Imagist Anthology. It is a lovely pantomime of luminous images, which must be valued according to the reader's perception and experience.

Also as a help to the appreciation of the Imagists, the Japanese lyrics<sup>3</sup> scattered through the pages of Lafcadio Hearn's writings have been gathered together and published in a single volume. They include Insect Poems, Children's Verse, Love Songs and Lyrics, Goblin Poetry, and the River of Heaven.

"The Winnowing Fan: Poems On The Great War,"<sup>4</sup> by Lawrence Binyon, another volume of The New Poetry Series, voices much that is noble.

## SUMMER FICTION

"GUIMÓ,"<sup>5</sup> a novel by Walter Elwood, presents a series of vivid sketches of native life in the Philippine Islands, bound together by the life-story of "Guimó," a half-caste boy who searches all his life for the people of his dreams, who would understand his hunger for kindness and love. He finds them at last in the Americans who come to the Philippines as teachers and torch-bearers of the gentler forces of civilization. The life of the various Island tribes, their customs and superstitions, and the contrast between their old savagery and the dawn of a new civilization, is told in vigorous prose that creates atmosphere and transports the reader, in mind, to "Guimó's" beloved country. A glossary of the native

expressions used throughout the book is given.

It would be difficult to find a more delightful volume of literary impressions than "Eight O'Clock and Other Studies,"<sup>6</sup> by St. John G. Ervine. Sometimes they are brilliant with wit and satire, and sometimes they are peepholes at sorrows we have let slip past our comprehension. "Ambition" and "The Crisis" reveal the author's rare power of observation coupled with unerring psychological insight. "Mrs. Martin's Man," a realistic study of Irish life in Ulster, and "Alice and a Family," a picture of life among the poor of London, are two unusual, full-length novels recently written by Mr. Ervine.

<sup>1</sup> Some Imagist Poets, and Anthology: The New Poetry Series. Houghton Mifflin. 92 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>2</sup> Irradiations: Sand and Spray. By John Gould Fletcher. Houghton Mifflin. 60 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>3</sup> Japanese Lyrics. By Lafcadio Hearn. Houghton Mifflin. 86 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>4</sup> The Winnowing Fan. By Lawrence Binyon. Houghton Mifflin. 37 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>5</sup> Guimó. By Walter Elwood. Chicago: Reilly & Britton. 344 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>6</sup> Eight O'Clock and Other Studies. By St. John G. Ervine. Macmillan. 128 pp. \$1.

**Allan and the Holy Flower.** By H. Rider Haggard. Longmans, Green. 384 pp. \$1.35.

Another "Allan Quartermain" story of amazing adventures that has all the Rider Haggard thrills. The search for a marvelous orchid, the "Holy Flower," and the rescue of a white woman who has been held in captivity twenty years by cannibals as the "Mother of the Flower."

**A Girl of the Blue Ridge.** By Payne Erskine. Little, Brown. 401 pp. \$1.35.

An interesting romantic novel, the story of "Lury," a lovable, untrained girl of the North Carolina mountains.

**Lovers in Exile.** By Baroness von Heyking. Dutton. 344 pp. \$1.35.

Ilse, a fragile, refined girl, innocent of the barest facts of actual life, marries into "Junkerdom" to satisfy the demands of her ambitious father. The workings of the German Foreign Office and the methods of persecution possibly ex-

istent in German officialdom form the background for this pathetic story.

**The Curse of Castle Eagle.** By Katherine Tynan. Duffield. 230 pp. \$1.25.

The story of a delightful Irish girl who lifts the curse of a violent death from a fine old family and its castle.

**Still Jim.** By Honore Willsie. Stokes. 369 pp. \$1.35.

The story of Jim Manning, engineer, "maker of trails," and of his ideals. A splendid love story and a clear exposition of the typical attitude of the "Old Stock" in America toward recent changes in American life.

**Angela's Business.** By Henry Sydnor Harrison. Houghton, Mifflin. 374 pp. \$1.35.

A moving story of a man's search for a womanly woman. He finds her at last,—his dearest comrade, playmate, friend, and workfellow."

## JOSEPH CONRAD'S LATEST ROMANCE

JOSEPH CONRAD'S marvelous gift for writing enthralling romance and profound and magnificent philosophy inextricably tangled with the mystery and freedom of the sea, is revealed at its best in his latest novel, "Victory."<sup>1</sup> The setting of the tale is the wild, forsaken island of Samburan. He tells the story of the meeting of Alma, an English girl, who drifts down to the South Sea Islands with a "Ladies' Traveling Orchestra," and Axel Heyst, ex-agent of the defunct Tropical Belt Coal Company, and of their life together in a lonely bungalow on Samburan. Axel Heyst had followed his dead father's precepts for the major part of his existence; he had firmly believed that the man "who forms a tie is lost." His father had written:

"Of the stratagems of life, the most cruel is the consolation of love, the most subtle, too; for the desire is the bed of dreams." And again, of man's various captivities to desire:

"Men love their captivity. To the unknown forces of negation, they prefer the miserable tumbled bed of their servitude. Man alone can give one the disgust of pity; yet I find it easier to believe in the misfortune of mankind than in its wickedness."

Pity induces Heyst to rescue Alma from her miserable life; love succeeds pity, and its regenerative flame demands for human love the exalted sacrifice of death. Heyst cries out a curse upon his mistaken belief: "Woe to the man who has not learned while young to hope, to love,—and to put his trust in life."

The symbolism of the book touches sublimity. Against the murky clouds that rumble their thunders over the burning volcano of Samburan, flash the shapes of splendor Conrad sets between us and the stars.

Far below, the harpies of evil sweep down

<sup>1</sup> Victory. By Joseph Conrad. Doubleday, Page. 462 pp. \$1.35.



JOSEPH CONRAD, AUTHOR OF "VICTORY"

upon the ideal values of life; even the dead reach fleshless hands from their graves to poison the living with false concepts. But the darkness lifts, and, triumphant through defeat and shame, the soul rises to the eternal "victory" through eternal love.



# BOOKS FOR THE BUSINESS WORLD

NO more excellent work dealing with "The Business of Advertising" has been published than the volume by Mr. Earnest Elmo Calkins.<sup>1</sup> Mr. Calkins has the advantage of being at once an eminently practical advertising man, one of the heads of a highly successful business in this field, and an able student with a distinctly literary facility and ability. This combination results in a book that is invaluable to anyone in the profession of advertising, and that is, at the same time, readable and lucid for the layman. Mr. Calkins tells us that the past ten years have made a great difference in the art and business of advertising, the problem of to-day being much more interesting and much harder than the problem of 1905. To-day, the manufacturer expects the expert,—the advertising agent,—to study the article to be advertised and the prospective market for it, sometimes for years, before any advertisement appears. To meet this demand, the advertising agent has gathered into his organization trained investigators, merchandising men, sales managers, and other experts in the making, distribution, and selling of goods. Mr. Calkins likens these intensive modern methods in advertising to the intensive cultivation of land to make it yield a larger crop. There is no better book than this for any man desirous of taking an interesting and accurate view of the whole field of the advertising business.

"Advertising—Selling the Consumer" is another first-class practical treatise from an eminently

practical man, Mr. John Lee Mahin, president of the Mahin Advertising Company of Chicago. The book has developed from a series of lectures given by Mr. Mahin at Northwestern University. After laying down certain fundamental principles for good advertising, the author prescribes ten tests which should be applied to any piece of advertising copy, and proceeds to give illustrations of the application of these tests to a number of specific advertisements reproduced in the volume. There follow a number of chapters on individual phases and departments of the advertising business, such as price maintenance, mail-order advertising, trade-marks, the advertising manager, the advertising solicitor, and the advertising agency. A particularly helpful feature of Mr. Mahin's book is the bibliography which follows almost every chapter, giving the reader who wishes to go much deeper into the details of the advertising business a full guide to an extraordinarily complete and well-selected reading course.<sup>2</sup>

"Railroad Accounting," by William E. Hooper, is a painstaking and clear account of the forms of bookkeeping prescribed by the Interstate Commerce Commission after it had completed in 1912 its five years' work on a uniform accounting system for the railroads of the country. The volume is fully equipped with forms and examples of railroad accounting problems and is entirely intelligible to the average studious investor as well as to the railroad executive.<sup>3</sup>

## CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

### *Books Relating to the War*

**The Road Toward Peace.** By Charles W. Eliot. Houghton Mifflin. 228 pp. \$1.

Several of President Eliot's deliverances on the causes of the war and the means of preventing war in the future have appeared in the columns of the *New York Times*, and have had a wide circulation throughout the country. Those who read them in that ephemeral form will be glad to know that these and other discussions from the same pen have been brought together in a single volume of convenient size. Among the topics treated are national jealousies, competitive armament, and the outlook for permanent peace.

**The German War.** By A. Conan Doyle. Doran. 152 pp. 75 cents.

Essays by the creator of "Sherlock Holmes" on the causes of the war and the situation of Great Britain.

**Secrets of Success in War.** By Edmund Dane. Doran. 256 pp. \$1.

In this little volume there is an interesting comparison of the British and German military systems based on the letters of Prince Kraft zu Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen. The book attempts to answer these questions: "What is a modern

army? How is it organized? How trained? In what manner does it go to work? In what lies its strength or its weakness? What should be expected from it?"

**The Nation in Arms.** By Baron von der Goltz. Translated by Philip A. Ashworth. Doran. 288 pp. \$1.

A popular edition of Field-Marshal Baron von der Goltz's treatise of modern military systems and the conduct of war, as translated by Philip A. Ashworth and edited by A. Hilliard Atteridge. General von der Goltz has been styled the "most eminent pupil of Von Moltke." He served in the Franco-Prussian War in 1870, and afterwards spent some years in Turkey as the instructor of the Ottoman army. In the war against Greece, in 1897, he was the author of a plan of campaign which led to the Sultan's victory. This book, "The Nation in Arms," describes the conduct of war in a European country by an army organized on a basis of universal military service.

**Paris Waits: 1914.** By M. E. Clarke. Putnam. 315 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Vivid impressions of the state of feeling in the French capital during the first weeks of the pres-

<sup>1</sup> The Business of Advertising. By Earnest Elmo Calkins. Appleton. 363 pp. \$2.

<sup>2</sup> Advertising—Selling the Consumer. By John Lee Mahin. Doubleday, Page & Co. 260 pp. \$2.

<sup>3</sup> Railroad Accounting. By William E. Hooper. Appletons. 461 pp. \$2.

ent war while the German armies were threatening the city.

**Why Europe Is at War: The Question Considered from the Points of View of France, England, Germany, Japan, and the United States.** By Frederic R. Coudert, Frederick W. Whitridge, Edmund von Mach, Toyokichi Iyenaga, Francis Vinton Greene. Putnam. 170 pp., ill. \$1.

This volume contains addresses delivered before the City Forum of Buffalo last February, in which the case of France was presented by Frederic R. Coudert, that of England by Frederick W. Whitridge, that of Germany by Dr. Edmund von Mach, and that of Japan by Dr. Toyokichi Iyenaga. An epilogue by General F. V. Greene presents the point of view of the United States.

**The Third Great War, 1914-15, in Relation to Modern History.** By Laurie Magnus. Putnam. 194 pp. \$1.

This is not a history of the present war, but an attempt to discuss the campaign of the Allies against the Hohenzollerns in the light of former allied campaigns against Bourbon and Bonaparte. This involves a discussion of the settlements that were made in 1713, and in 1815, and of events subsequent to those settlements. These facts are presented with a view to influencing public opinion on the settlement to be made after the conclusion of the present war.

**A Surgeon in Belgium.** By Dr. H. S. Souttar. Longmans, Green. 217 pp., ill. \$2.40.

One of the few publications that give us an accurate picture of hospital work as it has developed during the present war. Dr. Souttar writes both for the layman and the professional man. Contrary to a prevalent opinion, he declares that there is room at the front for the highest skill that the profession of surgery can produce. He urges the need of hospitals close to the front with every modern equipment and with surgeons of resource and energy.

**A Cadet of Belgium.** By Captain Allan Grant. Doran. 286 pp. 60 cents.

A boy's story of cavalry fighting, bicycle, and armored automobile adventures by a popular writer of juveniles.

**Four Weeks in the Trenches.** By Fritz Kreisler. Houghton, Mifflin. 86 pp. \$1.

The first war book actually written by a man who has served at the front is "Four Weeks in the Trenches," by Fritz Kreisler, the famous violinist. The material is presented with vigor and simplicity. One of the phenomena of war,—the sudden transformation of the highly emotional, neurotic man of literary or artistic pursuits, accustomed to an atmosphere of refinement, culture, and luxury, into a primeval savage in the space of a few days,—interests the author. He writes: "In the field all neurotic symptoms disappear as by magic, and one's whole system is charged with energy and vitality. The very massing together of so many individuals with every will merged into one that strives with gigantic effort toward a common end, and the consequent simplicity and directness of all purpose, seems to release and un-

hinge all the primitive, aboriginal forces stored in the human soul. A certain fierceness arises in you, an absolute indifference to anything the world holds except your duty of fighting. You are eating a crust of bread, and a man is shot dead in the trench next to you. You look calmly at him for a moment and then go on eating your bread. Why not? There is nothing to be done."

Mr. Kreisler was wounded, after four weeks of fighting, and consequently was exempted from further military service. The proceeds from the sale of this book will be given to the Fund for Destitute Musicians.

**War and World Government.** By Frank Crane. Lane. 256 pp. \$1.

Dr. Crane's editorials on the subject of war have been supplied to over thirty of the leading newspapers of the United States and Canada. These articles, which began as a protest against the stupidity of war, its cruelty and causelessness, have gradually developed into a plea for world government.

**The Interpretation of History.** By Lionel Cecil Jane. Dutton. 348 pp. \$1.75.

Although written some months before the beginning of the war, this writer's argument indicated that a general European war was both imminent and inevitable. An appendix is added entitled "The Conflict in the Future," in which the author indicates what may be expected to be the ultimate influence of the present European war upon the future of mankind.

## International Problems

**The Game of Empires.** By E. S. Van Zile. Moffat, Yard. 302 pp. \$1.25.

This book is an earnest argument for preparedness,—the kind of preparedness which is declared in a prefatory note by Colonel Roosevelt to be in reality preparedness against war. The author derives from European history, culminating in the present great war, a warning to the United States against reliance upon external tendencies toward international peace.

**War and the Ideal of Peace.** By Henry Rutgers Marshall. Duffield. 234 pp. \$1.25.

A psychologist's analysis of those human characteristics that lead to war and of the means by which they may be controlled.

**America and the New World-State.** By Norman Angell. Putnam. 305 pp. \$1.25.

In this volume the author of "The Great Illusion" makes a plea for American leadership in international organization looking forward even beyond the conclusion of world peace. It is a thoughtful study of the ethical aspects of international relations.

**Defenseless America.** By Hudson Maxim. New York: Hearst's International Library Company. 318 pp., ill. \$2.

A graphic and effective presentation of facts revealing the defenseless condition of this country and indicating what must be done to avert national humiliation.



**God's Path to Peace.** By Ernst Richard. New York: The Abingdon Press. 109 pp. 75 cents.

A study in the evolutionary processes making for world peace by the founder of the New York Peace Society, who is also the president of the German-American Peace Society.

**The Pan-Angles.** By Sinclair Kennedy. Longmans, Green. 244 pp. \$1.75.

A consideration of the federation of "the seven English-speaking nations,"—New Zealand, Australia, South Africa, Newfoundland, Canada, the British Isles, and the United States.

**The Monroe Doctrine: National or International? The Problem and Its Solution.** By William I. Hull. Putnam. 136 pp. 75 cents.

An argument to show that the United States must take steps to "internationalize" the Monroe Doctrine. Only by this means, in the author's opinion, can the United States exert its rightful leadership in behalf of permanent peace and genuine justice among the nations.

### Biography

**Hugh: Memoirs of a Brother.** By Arthur Christopher Benson. Longmans, Green. 265 pp., ill. \$1.75.

Delightful, intimate sketches of Mgr. Benson as his personality revealed itself to members of his own family. As the younger of a group of three brothers who have distinguished themselves in modern English letters, Mgr. Benson made a rare appeal to thousands of readers on both sides of the Atlantic, and his death last year was universally lamented.

**The Secret of an Empress.** By the Countess Zanardi Landi. Houghton Mifflin. 344 pp., ill. \$4.

This is a revelation of Austrian court life by the fourth child of the Emperor Franz Josef and Empress Elizabeth. The culmination of the story is the assassination of the Empress in September, 1898. The writer of these memoirs has been refused recognition by the Emperor.

**John Shaw Billings: A Memoir.** By Fielding H. Garrison. Putnam. 432 pp., por. \$2.50.

In this volume the late Director of the New York Public Library is permitted to tell his own story through letters and other personal documents. Dr. Garrison has used excellent judgment in the selection of material and has been guided throughout by a fine sense of proportion. Before Dr. Billings came to the New York Library he had won world-wide fame as perhaps the greatest bibliographer in the history of medicine, as the organizer of one of the great medical libraries of the world, and as a sanitarian and hygienic expert. These various phases of his career are fittingly illustrated in this volume, and there is an interesting account of Civil War surgery, in which Dr. Billings took an active part.

**Makers of New France.** By Charles Dawbarn. Pott. 246 pp., ill. \$2.50.

Among the modern French leaders sketched in

this book are President Poincaré, General Joffre, Delcassé, Briand, Clemenceau, the Socialist leader Jaurès, who was killed at the outbreak of the present war; Metchnikov, Anatole France, Bergson, Jean Finot, and Eugène Brieux. Each sketch is a vivid, impressionistic character-study.

**Robert E. Lee.** By Bradley Gilman. Macmillan. 205 pp., ill. 50 cents.

It is significant that in the new series of "True Stories of Great Americans" the sketch of the Southern chieftain, General Robert E. Lee, should be written by a Northerner, Mr. Bradley Gilman, a classmate of Theodore Roosevelt at Harvard. The story of Lee's life is sympathetically told and with a fine appreciation of those traits in his character that have commanded universal respect.

**Robert Fulton.** By Alice Crary Sutcliffe. Macmillan. 195 pp., ill. 50 cents.

This story of the steamboat inventor's life was written by a great-granddaughter. Several interesting letters and documents written by Fulton are inserted in the text.

**Captain John Smith.** By Rossiter Johnson. Macmillan. 194 pp., ill. 50 cents.

It is, indeed, difficult to say anything new about Captain John Smith and the task of the modern biographer of this worthy is chiefly one of discrimination in materials. Mr. Johnson has sifted the wheat from the chaff, rejecting many of the apocryphal stories of Smith's early days and retaining and amplifying the verified facts of his work in the colony of Virginia.

**A Great Peace Maker: The Diary of James Gallatin, Secretary to Albert Gallatin, 1813-1827.** Scribners. 314 pp., ill. \$2.50.

Especially timely was the publication, just on the anniversary of the Treaty of Ghent, of the diary of James Gallatin, son and secretary to Albert Gallatin, for the years 1813-1827, with an introduction by Lord Bryce. The elder Gallatin, who was a native of Geneva, had an important part in the early diplomacy of the United States. As one of the American commissioners at Ghent, he has received the chief credit for the conclusion of peace with Great Britain. Before that time he had served as Secretary of the Treasury in the administrations of Jefferson and Madison, but his subsequent career was to be confined chiefly to the field of diplomacy. This diary covers the period 1815-23, when Gallatin was United States Minister to Paris, and also the period, 1826-27, of his last special diplomatic mission to England. The son was notably frank in his comments on the other American diplomats, including John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay, with whom his father was associated, and quite unreserved in relating what was at that period common talk about some of the great figures in European history—Napoleon Bonaparte, the Duke of Wellington, King George IV, Czar Alexander I of Russia, Lafayette, Madame de Staël, and many others. The anecdotes recorded in this lively diary give valuable sidelights on the social and political history of the times.

## **Sociology and Economics**

**The Social Problem: A Constructive Analysis.** By Charles A. Ellwood. Macmillan. 255 pp. \$1.25.

The most recent attempt to make a constructive application of social theory to immediate practical problems, the writer finding in the control of individual character the real crux of the social problem.

**Societal Evolution: A Study of the Evolutionary Basis of the Science of Society.** By Albert Galloway Keller. Macmillan. 338 pp. \$1.50.

A transference of Darwinism and its terminology from the field of biology to that of sociology. The author's thesis is that the Darwinian factors of variation, selection, transmission, and adaptation are active in the life of societies as in that of organisms.

**Essays in Social Justice.** By Thomas Nixon Carver. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 429 pp. \$2.

In this volume Professor Carver makes an effective plea for "practical" morality, by which he means that kind of morality which evaluates character and conduct by their results, as distinguished from sentimental morality, "which evaluates character and conduct by their ability to satisfy an inner sense of propriety, or to create within us the sensation of approval." Professor Carver's test of practical morality is objective and not subjective. "By their fruits ye shall know them." In other words, he demands the adoption of guiding principles that are to be tested by their power to propel us in the right direction.

**Government of the Canal Zone.** By George W. Goethals. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 106 pp., ill. \$1.

In this little book Colonel Goethals briefly outlines the methods employed on the Canal Zone in the housing and feeding of the working force; the purchasing, receiving, and issuing of construction supplies; the recruiting of labor both skilled and unskilled, and the controlling of the zone and preserving order within its limits.

**The City Manager: A New Profession.** By Harry Aubrey Toulmin, Jr. Appleton. 310 pp. \$1.50.

As a citizen of Dayton, Mr. Toulmin has been able to study, at close range, the City Manager form of government as it actually exists, and has had the advantage of consultation and close contact with those who are conducting the experiment. He has also followed the workings of the plan in other American communities, and his book summarizes the entire subject.

**Public Utilities: Their Fair Present Value and Return.** By Hammond V. Hayes. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company. 208 pp. \$2.

This volume, dealing with "fair present value" of public utility properties, is intended to supplement an earlier study by the same writer of the methods to be pursued in the valuation of such

property. In the present volume, also, the subjects of "growing value" and depreciation have been considered at some length, all from the standpoint of the professional engineer.

**My Life Out of Prison.** By Donald Lowrie. Kennerley. 345 pp. \$1.50.

A new book by the author of "My Life in Prison," a volume that Thomas Mott Osborne declared to be the inspiration of his decision to devote his life to prison work. The present volume tells what Donald Lowrie has done during the four years since he left prison in the interest of prisoners and prison reform.

**Wage-Earning Pittsburgh.** Edited by Paul Underwood Kellogg. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 582 pp., ill. \$2.50.

**The Pittsburgh District Civic Frontage.** Edited by Paul Underwood Kellogg. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 554 pp. \$2.50.

These two volumes form the concluding publications of the Pittsburgh Survey, which was undertaken seven years ago by a group of leaders and organizations in social and sanitary movements cooperating with individuals and organizations in Pittsburgh, who regarded their local situation as the heart of the American problem of city-building. The results of this investigation were published at length in the *Survey*, and were everywhere considered of so great value as to warrant their preservation in more permanent form.

**The Happiness of Nations: A Beginning in Political Engineering.** By James Mackaye. Huebsch. 256 pp. \$1.25.

In the Harvard Lectures which make up this volume the author develops his philosophy of happiness, termed "political engineering" as distinguished from political economy, politics, and political science, and endeavors to ascertain the end which should be of the greatest interest to society and to point out the means by which that end may be obtained.

**The Principles of Rural Credits.** By James B. Morman. Macmillan. 296 pp. \$1.25.

Mr. Morman, who is himself a farmer and a student of farm problems, has based this analysis of the rural credits question on the mass of material gathered two years ago by the American Commission, which visited Europe and investigated the various systems of farm credits there in operation. Mr. Morman strongly advocates farmers' cooperative societies, State long-time loans to farmers on first mortgage, the Torrens system of land registration, and protection of farmers against usury. He recognizes the fact that European systems cannot be transplanted bodily to an American environment.

**Women Under Polygamy.** By Walter M. Gallichan. Dodd, Mead. 356 pp., ill. \$2.50.

For a Western writer the author of this book is unusually favorable to the system of plural marriage. His point of view in several of the chapters approaches very closely to that of the Mohammedans. The preface of the book, contributed by Woodbridge Riley, attacks the polygamous practices of the Mormons in this country.



# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—FARM MORTGAGES AND THE WAR

AT a time when so many important railroad systems are in receivership and when ordinary business enterprise is either surfeited with unnatural war-order prosperity or suffering from complete stagnation, it is a relief to turn to a field of investment where "safety first" seems to be the motto. If speculation and profit is what the investor wants he had better not touch farm mortgages, but if security and a reasonably high interest return possess any attractions, then the first mortgage on productive, income-earning land is perhaps the most satisfactory channel for the employment of surplus funds.

### *An Essentially Sound Form of Investment*

In many respects the local farm mortgage is the most logical and natural method of employing funds. Why should a physician or a widow in a small village purchase stocks and bonds in distant enterprises when it is possible to secure close at hand a safe, remunerative first mortgage? Indeed there are billions of dollars of farm loans owned in just this way. But despite the easily understood popularity of local mortgages, the mortgage as an investment, nationally speaking, has not received sufficient attention or attraction. Its position in public estimation has been distinctly but unjustly an inferior one. To overcome false prejudices that may exist is a worthy endeavor, especially at a time when safety of invested money is the great desideratum.

It requires no technical knowledge of either agriculture or finance to perceive that the farm is the basis of wealth, its most essential and stable component part. Even if the census figures did not prove this statement with emphasis and detail, the most cursory reading of newspapers since the war began would establish it. The farm is the soundest of all property. It is the basic element in support of life; demand for its products always increases. Even in war time foodstuffs, forage crops, and meats are more needed than ever. Farms do not suffer from such influences as politics, anti-trust legislation, Government regulation and ownership, or even to anything like the same extent that

manufacturing enterprises do, from tariff changes and competition. They are the foundation of the whole material structure of national life.

But as an offset to these quite obvious facts has been the lack of uniformity in the past in the making and negotiation of farm loans. Many individuals have made loans directly upon land or buildings as security and had so much annoyance and trouble in collecting interest and seeing that taxes and insurance were provided for that a mighty vow was taken never again to invest in anything except the bonds or stocks of large corporations. But the recent formation not only of a national organization of farm-mortgage dealers but of several State organizations has been making toward uniformity and the consequent popularizing of this form of investment.

### *Reliability of Farm-Mortgage Houses*

Even more important than the organization of dealers have been the growth and development of the dealers themselves. It is no longer true that an investor finds a farm mortgage annoying and troublesome, even granting its safety. The whole industry of lending to the farmer is steadily drifting into the hands of large and reliable dealers. The investor picks his farm-mortgage banker just as he chooses his bond house. Consequently investors depend upon the judgment and conservative estimates of such dealers,—a dependence which has been more than justified. There are to-day scores of strong and efficient farm-mortgage houses to which one may turn with absolute confidence, and, of course, it hardly need be said that all details, legal and other, are looked after by the dealer. He collects and forwards interest, takes care of taxes and insurance, and looks after his clients' welfare to the full. The rate of interest which he offers when he sells a mortgage is strictly net; there are no deductions or commissions to the customer, no incidental expenses.

The statement made in a previous sentence that confidence in the stronger farm-mortgage dealers has been more than justified

is borne out literally in a striking manner. Except for a few years in the late seventies and early eighties, when the western country was very new and thinly settled, there has been an unbroken record of prompt payment of principal and interest on farm mortgages. The percentage of loss has been extremely small,—probably smaller than in any other class of investment with the possible exception of municipal bonds. There are numbers of dealers who have been in business many years who can boast of no loss whatever having been sustained by their clients, and others through whom loss has been negligibly small. One firm has loaned more than \$75,000,000 in some fifty years with less than \$700 loss. It is quite the common thing to find a firm with a twenty-year record and no loss. It is doubtful if this is true in any other investment field.

#### *Large Holdings of Insurance Companies*

Backing up the boasts of the dealers themselves is the experience of the great life-insurance companies, heretofore the largest single investors in farm mortgages. Possibly one reason why the public at large has not taken more to the farm loan has been the popular feeling, fostered by fiction and melodrama, that the mortgage is a synonym for hardship and poverty. In every cheap play the villain holds a mortgage on the old homestead of the heroine's father. Now in actual life farmers do not borrow money primarily because they are poor but because they are enterprising and up to date. There is one caution generally to be observed in buying farm mortgages; confine yourself to a stable, settled country, where farming is diversified. There are a few exceptions to this rule, but in general it holds good. Now for diversified agriculture the farmer needs buildings, fences, machinery, and choice breeding stocks. He borrows for the same reason that the railroad, electric-light company, or factory borrows,—to extend his operations. Of course, the big life-insurance companies were too purely, coolly institutional ever to have any foolish, popular prejudice against mortgages. They have long been investing in them, with splendid results.

It is difficult to discover exactly what the aggregate holdings of insurance companies are, but it is easy to ascertain the holdings of individual companies. The Northwestern Mutual, of Milwaukee, which stands exceedingly high in the insurance world, has about \$100,000,000 invested in this way. Other companies which have from \$30,000,000 to

\$80,000,000 in farm mortgages are the Union Central, Mutual Benefit, Prudential, Aetna Life, John Hancock, and Connecticut Mutual. The last-named company has more than \$31,000,000 in farm loans at the present time and has made since 1881 loans amounting to \$114,994,023. Speaking of its experience in this field, the company says in its report for 1914:

From this large volume of loans, the company, in the thirty-three years of its experience, has only foreclosed, for all causes, mortgages amounting to sixty-six one-hundredths of one per cent.,—a most remarkable record on such a volume of business.

Insurance companies are very cautious and careful as to the districts in which they loan. Several of them prefer the great "corn belt," although this is not universal by any means. The point is that they will not loan everywhere. They choose both their farm-loan agents and their territory with care.

Of course there are shiftless farmers and there is poor land in every State. But the plain fact of the matter is that if loans are made with the right sort of care by experienced dealers in territory where values appear to be reasonably stable, the investor simply does not lose. And if by any chance foreclosure becomes necessary the relative simplicity of the thing as compared with the reorganization of a railroad like the Wabash or Rock Island leaves the investor with a definite piece of property rather than with a slip of paper whose relation to the railroad only a genius, half mathematician and half corporation lawyer, can figure out. As for the war, that otherwise disastrous event has naturally strengthened the position of farm loans, because the farmer is more prosperous than before.

#### *Small Denominations*

One obstacle to a wider clientèle for farm loans has been the inability of small investors to obtain the exact amounts they desired. Now, however, several reliable firms issue farm-land bonds or trust-deed notes. But the majority of dealers still sell the straight mortgage direct. As a rule these mortgages are issued in denominations of \$1000 and upward, the average farm loan being somewhere between \$2000 and \$5000, often for odd amounts such as \$3500. A few of the better firms sell smaller mortgages, often for \$500 or even for \$300. While the custom of each and every dealer varies, it may be said without much fear of contradiction that as a whole the farm loan offers



the widest and most attractive choice to the man or woman with a few thousand dollars.

The rate of interest varies in different sections. In parts of Iowa, and a few other Middle Western sections of exceptional agricultural wealth, the rate in the past has been 5 per cent., and recently, since interest rates on capital the world over have risen, about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Of course, in newer sections or in a one-crop country 7 per cent. or even more has been obtained, but it should be repeated that the average, prevailing rate runs from 5 to 6 per cent., and is everywhere, with the few exceptions noted, considered safe and conservative.

### *The Problem of Liquidation*

"But," asks the objector, "can I sell a farm loan when I want to?" Primarily the first mortgage on real estate in any form is for individuals and institutions that are not seeking to sell again immediately, but wish to lay the security away for several years. They do not seek any element of speculation. They do not want profits. What they want is the largest interest consistent with safety. Mortgages are not, in this country at least, market securities. They are in a sense fixed investments.

It must occur to everyone, however, that if mortgages are not readily convertible into cash they would hardly be suitable for life-

insurance companies which must constantly liquidate their investments to meet death losses. While not *salable*, the mortgage *liquidates itself* because its life is short. Mortgages, unlike so many corporation bonds, run for only a few years. The average farm loan should not be made for more than five, or at the most, ten years. Thus by sacrificing the element of speculative profit coupled with frequent newspaper quotations, the investor receives a greater degree of safety and a higher rate of interest. Then by purchasing a farm loan for, say, two years, another for three years, and another for five he will always have money coming in. If he needs the money he has it, and if he does not require its immediate use, he can always re-invest or extend the loan. As for stocks, often those which appear the most attractive at one time are found to be unsalable when the markets are hard hit, and as they are never paid off, the investor simply has to "sit tight."

The whole question of investment resolves itself into what the owner of money wants. If he wants excitement, speculation, daily agitation, let him purchase stocks or active bonds. If he merely wants his money to earn 6 per cent. in a quiet, unobtrusive manner, and have it returned intact without a cent added or subtracted at the end of a few years, let him communicate with an experienced and reliable dealer in farm mortgages.

## II.—INVESTMENT QUERIES AND ANSWERS

### NO. 639. SOME MISCELLANEOUS QUESTIONS ABOUT BONDS AND STOCKS

I keep several hundred dollars of easily available money in a savings bank and building and loan association, and have been investing annually in mortgage participations and small denomination bonds of more or less obscure issues, diversified to include municipal, public utility, corporation, and timber bonds, with an average yield somewhat under 6 per cent. Should I buy long-term bonds because they are relatively cheap now and trust to the statements of the selling brokers that they will buy them back at a slight discount, in case I should desire the money? Or, should I buy short-term bonds and notes? Ought I in the future to buy \$1,000 issues of standard listed issues? Would some standard stocks be as good or a better investment than more bonds of the type I now have?

We believe it to be good investment practice always to include among one's holdings of securities a few relatively short-term issues. Such securities at the present time, however, do not compare favorably in price with long-term bonds, which as a class are still showing the marks of the recent depression in the investment market.

The amount of reliance to be placed upon the statements of bankers and brokers that they will

repurchase securities sold by them at a slight discount, in cases where their clients are confronted with sudden needs for cash, depends, of course, upon their standing and responsibility. We know of many firms that have excellent records for serving their clients satisfactorily in this respect.

We believe, also, that it is excellent practice for one to build up a savings account along with the accumulation of sound investment securities, and it is not a bad idea to use the accumulated savings from time to time in the purchase of listed bonds of standard denomination, although there is no reason why one should not be able to get the same degree of underlying security in the small denomination issues, even if at the sacrifice of a small degree of convertibility.

The addition of some of the standard dividend-paying stocks to such a list as you describe would be a good way to diversify further, but we are inclined to think it might be well to defer the purchase of that class of securities until general market conditions become more stable than they are at the present time.







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